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LONDON, SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 26, 1842.

REVIEWS

History of France—[*Histoire de France*]. Par M. Michelet. Tome V. Paris, 1840.

THE history of France by M. Michelet is in one respect the best that has yet appeared. His range of authorities is more extensive, and his volume of narrative smaller than those of any former historian. Nothing is presented to the eye of the reader but the great events of the age, the advance and reaction of the noble, municipal and servile orders, the rise or decline of spiritual power, the character and quality of the leading spirits who agitated or controlled these elements. Each event, as it rises, is traced back to its origin in the impulse of manners and prejudices, sometimes general, sometimes local, of which latter, the author's graphic sketches afford quick and vivid glances, untouched by other historians of the middle age. Some of these tints are a little overcharged; but who can write long from Froissart without catching and transmitting some of the coloured effulgence which streams through that storied oriel? Froissart himself is strongly tinged by the romances. The staple, however, of M. Michelet's narrative is never sober or simple, even in those massive parts which should slumber in shadow and repose; too succinct, perhaps, and abstract; allied to the school of Montesquieu by subtlety and paradox, as well as by a spirit of vast and vague generalization, and not altogether free from that affection of brevity, something between Tacitus and Sallust, which no French historian seems able to resist; but abounding with indications of a fine and powerful understanding, and enriched with many sketches, of high finish in the execution, though not of equal judgment in the selection, and by high-wrought fragments of civil and sacerdotal controversy, which illustrate the genius of the 14th and 15th centuries.

Those who have read M. Michelet's last volume (*Athen.* No. 678), will not easily forget the succession of vivid pictures with which they were dazzled—the insurrection which, blazing out from the embers of Artevelde's rebellion at Ghent, overspread France, and threw that realm into combustion from Artois to the Pyrenees—the campaign of Philip of Burgundy in Flanders—the annihilation of the Gantois on the plains of Rosbeck—the profligate and rapacious administration of the accomplished and voluptuous Louis Duke of Orleans expiated by his blood—the blind and furious democracy of Paris ranged under the banners of Burgundy and Armagnac, and the cruelty of the victorious factions—above all, the wild and original character of Jean-sans-peur, which stands alone in the history of French Statesmen, a Count of Flanders, and a Regent of France, courting the Parisian populace, and crushing the urban population of Liège and Brabant, leagued with Henry the Fourth of England, and assiduously cultivating the Court of Castile, filling Paris with Flemish soldiers, and re-instating the Tiers Etat in their legislative functions, yielding implicit submission to the University of Paris, but founding his dominion on the enthusiasm of the butchers of the capital. Nor will the impression easily fade of the wild and brilliant picture which M. Michelet has drawn of that barbaric host which rolled from the south of France on the Metropolis during the sway of Jean-sans-peur. That movement, which brought to light, almost for the last time, the fading image of feudal chivalry in the mountains of Armagnac and in the fiefs of Foix, afforded M. Michelet an opportunity of depicting the manners and character of these fierce Gascons, who avenged the fate of Raymond and the Albigenes in the northern part

of France. The force and fidelity with which he caught the vivid traits of the dark and ardent population of the southern provinces, (a favourite subject of recent travellers and novelists,) his description of the march of the Armagnacs on Paris, and of the collision of these fierce enthusiasts with the Walloons and Flemings of the north, form a very remarkable picture, whether we regard the brilliancy of the colours, or the curious historical facts mingled in the composition. The ecclesiastical history of the period comprehended in M. Michelet's former volume, is, if possible, more prodigious than the civil. No supreme authority in the Catholic church—excommunications flashed from the Pope of Avignon against the Pope of Rome, and from the Pope of Rome against the Pope of Avignon—the Spanish Cardinal de Luna, who, under the name of Benedict XIII. launched his feeble thunders from Provence, a singular example of sacerdotal contumacy and blind arrogance—the mild and venerable form of Gerson, who with great intrepidity opposed himself to the hoarse and Hildebrandine cheers of the Burgundian faction in the council of Constance, and drew the frowns of that august assembly on the assassination of Orleans—the dawn of the Reformation on the mountains of Bohemia during the eclipse of the papal power, the expectation that that dawn would set in the blood of Huss, and the dispassionate view of the character, capacity, and principles, of the Bohemian reformer—the papal Court of Avignon, the efforts of Charles VI.'s ministers to fix the Popedom in France, with the moral and political influence of the Provençal Vatican, which threw into the hands of France the most irregular and dangerous engine ever wielded by any European State—this strange combination of events rendered the ecclesiastical portion of M. Michelet's former volume still more interesting than the civil transactions, and formed a moral picturesque of more durable attraction than his Brabançons or Gascons.

The period of French history comprehended in the present volume being the reign of Charles VII. (1421–1461), is not marked by events of such unparalleled variety and magnitude. The former volume painted the rapid declension of France through scenes of horror and bloodshed, and conducted the affairs of that monarch to the lowest point of depression which they ever reached—the transference of France under the English sceptre, and the establishment of the Plantagenet dominion in Paris by the treaty of Troyes, which raised our warlike King Henry V. to the French throne. The present volume takes up the narrative at the death of Henry, a point from which France began steadily to re-ascend, and follows Charles through his long series of contests with Bedford, York, Suffolk, and Talbot, till the final expulsion of the English, both from Normandy and Guienne, the restoration of Charles to the throne of his ancestors, and the conversion of the steel-clad chivalry, which had driven them from these provinces, into a standing army—which awed the spirit of faction, and prepared the way for the deep stagnation of Louis XI.'s despotism. The subject of this fifth volume, in short, is France struggling with an invader, concentrating that vast strength which she had wasted in her civil commotions, uniting her varied population in one enthusiastic effort to expel her enemies, and, finally triumphant, through the suppression of her domestic factions and the close of those scenes of in-urrection and massacre, which had opened a way for our Lancastrian princes into the heart of the kingdom. This is a very simple historical action; and the contrast is very remarkable between the unity of subject presented

in the reign of Charles VII., and the infinite variety and complexity, not only of the sanguinary factions in Paris, and of the whole Gallican hierarchy rent asunder by the schism in the papacy, but of the innumerable local broils, partly feudal, partly heretical, which agitated the dark and turbulent period of the reign of Charles VI. The history of France, under the former prince, as here given by M. Michelet, resolves itself, in fact, into a tale of military exploits; and as there is much more of circumstantial recital and of personal adventure here than in the former era, so is there less scope for speculative episodes and literary digressions, the *dulcia vitia* of M. Michelet's school: and those in which he does indulge himself respecting the progress of society, the temper of religious opinion, the state of learning, seem to spring with more easy luxuriance from the author's mind, and, like the natural foliage of the subject, grow gracefully out of its rugged materials, instead of clogging and encumbering them, as was too often the case in the former portion of this history. Towards the close of this volume, when the unity of the action ends in the restoration of the French monarchy and the scene of warfare is closed, when the pacific and splendid period of Charles's reign opens up some of the old intestine wounds, and, with the age of legislation and finance, the agitation of papal schism and municipal ambition also returns, M. Michelet is again at sea, and from the period which he very properly terms the close of the Middle Ages, and which he also calls "La Reforme et pacification de la France," he breaks away from his main subject, and loses himself in excursions through the wide and various field of European cultivation, which, though exceedingly entertaining, yet, from want of management, perplex, rather than illustrate the story of events, and are at once out of all proportion to the broken narrative, and without sequel or coherence with each other.

The volume opens with the Regency of the Duke of Bedford at Paris, supported by his potent ally the Duke of Burgundy, while Charles, the French king, lived poor and neglected, sometimes in Auvergne, sometimes at Bourges, immersed in pleasure, and abandoning the contest for his crown to Arthur Count of Richemont, or la Hire. The narrative is here a great deal too rapid; we have seven years of war despatched in as many pages; and such is the writer's impatience to get to the Maid of Orleans, that he scarce alludes to the first shock given to the Plantagenet dominion at Montargis by Du-nois. He thus introduces the far-famed Joan on the scene:—

During the fifteenth century, the minds of men were in a state of high excitement by reason of their extreme sufferings, and visions and inspirations were common. In Paris Friar Richard so wrought on the populace by his sermons, that the English were compelled to drive him from the city. The Carmelite monk, Conecta, was listened to in Coutraï and Arras, by congregations of twenty thousand men. Each province of France had its inspired prophet. There was Mary of Avignon, and Catherine of Rochelle. But Lorraine was the last province where such a phenomenon was to be looked for. The people of Lorraine are brave and warlike, but artful and intriguing. If the great Guise saved France before he troubled her, it was not by visions. We find two natives of Lorraine at the siege of Orleans, both marked by the lively humour of their comic countryman Callot: the one, the cannoneer John, who died so bravely; the other, a Knight, who was taken by the English, loaded with chains, and after their expulsion returned on horseback to his own land. But the highlands of Lorraine, where the Vosges ascend, are of a graver character. That elevated portion of France, from which streams descend on all sides, was then covered with forests

forests so wide that the Carolingian monarchs deemed them worthy of royal chase. In the midst of these forests rose the venerable abbeys of Luxeuil and Remiremont, the latter governed by an abbot, who was a Princess of the Holy Empire, who had her grand officers and her feudal court, and whose sword was borne aloft before her by her seneschal. The Dukes of Lorraine were the vassals of this royal abbey. It was just on the verge, between High and Low Lorraine, at Dom Remy, that that brave and beautiful girl was born, who was to bear the sword of France. The banks of the Meuse form there the March of Lorraine and Champagne, that debateable territory so long contested between the King and the Duke. The father of Joan, Jacques Darc, was a worthy Champagnais. Joan, no doubt, resembled her father; she had nothing of the Lorraine churlishness in her temperament, but much of that gentleness which marks the natives of Champagne, that mixture of naïveté with good sense and discernment which shines in the character of Joinville. A few centuries earlier, Joan had been born a serf, subject to the abbey of St. Remy. One century back, she had been born subject to the lord of Joinville. Joinville was, in fact, lord of Vaucouleurs, a town of which Dom Remy was a dependent. But in 1335 the King, Philip of Valois, compelled the lords of Joinville to cede Vaucouleurs to the crown. It was not only the grand route of Germany, but that of the descent of the Meuse; and at the period of the birth of Joan, this March formed the boundary also of the two parties. Near Dom Remy was the last village belonging to the Burgundian faction; all the rest adhered to the king.

He describes minutely the rustic superstitions and local legends, in which the childhood of Joan was nursed among the forests of the Vosges, and the tendency of the situation of France and the continued havoc and devastation, to impress an ardent fancy; and after reciting at too great length the angelic voices and heavenly visions which exhorted her to re-establish the throne of France, and led her to mistake her patriotic zeal for a celestial impulse, he gives, from MSS. hitherto unpublished, some curious particulars of the obstacles raised by her family against the execution of her purpose:—

The two authorities, paternal and celestial, uttered contradictory commands. The one would have her remain in obscurity and humble toil: the other urged her to quit her native village and deliver France. The angel commanded her to take arms. Her father, a dull peasant, swore that if his daughter persisted in going with the soldiers, he would drown her with his own hands. Joan experienced from her family not only resistance but temptation. They endeavoured to marry her to a young villager, who averred that she had engaged to wed him: and when she denied it, he summoned her before the Spiritual Court of Toul, where she publicly appeared and defended herself. In order to escape from her own family, she prevailed on her uncle to take her into his house, and succeeded in convincing him of her heavenly mission. At her request, he applied to Baudricourt, the governor of Vaucouleurs, who treated the peasant roughly, and advised him to send her back to her father well whipped. It was now the decisive moment: she resolved to apply to the governor in person. She arrived in the town of Vaucouleurs in her large red peasant dress, and presented herself before Baudricourt, saying, with a firm voice, that she came to him in the name of her Lord, that he might encourage the king, and warn him not to give battle to his enemies, because the Lord would soon aid him.

Baudricourt yielded; and our author proceeds to relate her equipment, her assumption of male attire, and very perilous journey, attended by five or six men-at-arms, to Chinon, where Charles then was, and where she arrived in February 1429. The agitation and doubt produced by her arrival, the theological discussions at Poitiers with respect to her character and mission, her arming cap-à-pie, and her consecrated banner bearing the *fleur-de-lis*, the raising of the siege of Orleans, with the consternation of the English and the terror and dismay of the Burgundian

faction, who resisted the king, and the coronation of Charles at Rheims, under the auspices of this warlike prophetess, are all described with a genuine enthusiasm, which warms and exalts our author's style.

The power and policy of Beaufort, Cardinal of Winchester, who at that critical moment came to the relief of his nephew, the Duke of Bedford, are not expressed with the force and distinctness we expected from M. Michelet, in the delineation of a character who played so conspicuous a part in the affairs of France at that period. Beaufort, the grandson of Edward III., and son of John of Gaunt, united all the great qualities, as well as vices, of the line of Plantagenet, and displayed in his person and court the regal glories of that haughty race. This royal Cardinal, who had rallied the church round his brother, Henry IV., and by its union with the mighty hierarchy of England had strengthened and exalted the throne of the Lancastrian princes, had maintained at the Council of Constance the ascendant acquired by the English arms at Agincourt, and by the election of Cardinal Colonna (Martin V.) and the abolition of the Avignon popes, gave a blow to France which she felt more keenly than the military defeat, had wrested the government of England from his nephew Gloucester; and upon the consternation of the English at the triumphs of Joan, he conducted in person to Normandy an army which had been originally destined against the heretics of Bohemia. His towering spirit, agitated by extensive plans of ambition and vengeance, struck terror into the Norman bishops among whom he came, as if his father, John of Gaunt, had re-appeared in all his old array. The French chroniclers of that day, on whom he seems to have made a deep impression, call him the Cardinal of England. He came with a fixed resolution to destroy the Maid, and to annul the coronation of Charles, by crowning his grand nephew, Henry VI., which he effected at Paris. The following is M. Michelet's picture of the English government during the minority of Henry VI.—

The Cardinal of Winchester then reigned in England. Gloucester, the Protector, his nephew, had lost himself in his imprudence and follies, while the Cardinal, who was the richest of all the English princes, and one of the greatest holders of benefices in the world, drew to himself the whole power of the state. The prelates of Canterbury, York, London, Ely, and Bath, composed the Council; and if they permitted any layman to have session among them, it was on condition that he should not speak a word. The government of England, as might have been foreseen at the accession of the Lancastrian princes, was become purely Episcopal. In order to carry to the height the Cardinal's power, it was necessary that Bedford, in France, should be reduced as low as Gloucester, in England, and compelled to implore aid from his uncle, who was on the point of setting out on the Bohemian crusades. On the 25th of July, only nine days after the coronation of Charles, the Cardinal made his entry into Paris.

Sorcery was the sharpest weapon of churchmen in those days; by this charge the Cardinal had blasted the power of Gloucester in England; by this he was able to raise such a storm of indignation and abhorrence against the Maid in France, as became uncontrollable. The process against Joan, first published at length by M. Quiberat, belongs rather to ecclesiastical than civil history, and is valuable as the most complete view of the proceedings of the Inquisition anywhere to be met with. A Dominican friar presided; the English Cardinal was present, while she was harassed with interrogatories for four months. The proceeding excited much interest among the jurists, casuists, and theologians of France; and Normandy, a great school of canon law, was agitated through all her seminaries. The object of the Cardinal was, to discredit the Maid by extorting a confession, that

her asserted visions were illusions. All kinds of charges were hurled at her—undutifulness to her parents, magical incantations, wearing male attire, heresy, and rejection of the church authority. Here is a specimen of the proceedings of this remarkable tribunal:—

Question. Joan, did you well to set out without permission from your parents?—Answer. They have pardoned me.—Q. Did you not commit sin in so acting?—A. God commanded me; had I had hundred parents I had set out.—Q. The voices of which you spoke, did they not call you daughter of the church, daughter of God?—A. Before the siege of Orleans was raised, and since, the voices called me, and still call me, Joan the Maid, daughter of God.—Q. Was it well done to attack Paris on the day of the nativity of Notre Dame?—A. It is well to keep the feasts of Notre Dame, to keep them every day.—Q. Do not St. Catharine and St. Margaret hate the English?—A. They love what God loves, and hate what he hates.—Q. Does not God hate the English?—A. Of the love or hatred borne by God to the English I know nothing, but I know well that they will be driven out of France.—Q. Was it well done in the King of France to kill the Duke of Burgundy?—A. It was a great misfortune for France, but whatever may have been the quarrel between them, God sent me to succour the King.

The cruel death of this heroine, which sullied with barbarism the military hierarchy of Cardinal Beaufort, gave no stability to his power, nor any way retrieved the affairs of the English, now far on the decline. Those who have attended to the history of France, and observed the violent emotions with which her people, in different ages, have been intensely and unanimously roused, will not deem the influence of the Maid unaccountable, though the instrument may appear unusual and extraordinary. The fervour of the Crusades, the ferocious attack on the Albigenes, which Guizot has shown to have been an assault of the feodality of the North on the municipality of the South, a political heresy,—the Jacqueries of 1358 and 1370, all these were so many outbreaks of that volatile and inflammable spirit, whose periodic explosions have covered France with the ruins of her orders: so in the present instance. The popular affection for Jean-sans-peur, which knew no bounds, and the grief and rage for his assassination,—another example of these paroxysms of occasional enthusiasm,—was the cause of the unnatural disloyalty of the French at this era, and of the extinction of their national spirit in the mortal animosity of the Burgundian faction. This virulence had nearly exhausted itself when the Maid appeared; the spectacle of their native sovereign expelled his throne by the arms of strangers, had begun to move the compassion of the people. Joan, herself, was both effect and cause of the reaction; and the light which broke from the royalist village of High Lorraine, and rekindled the national spirit of the French, had itself been elicited from sympathy with their returning monarch.

The truce concluded in 1443, by Beaufort, between France and England, suspends the military narrative; and here M. Michelet introduces some account of Charles's civil administration, and attempts to restore the fabric of society, which lay before him a perfect wreck. He seldom fails to give a view of that important part of history which concerns the condition of the people and the gradual emergence of the industrious orders. But there are two capital events in the constitutional history of France at this period, on which he does not sufficiently pause. These are the superseding the feudal militia by the Companies of Ordinance, the first standing army known in Europe, and the making the taille or land-tax perpetual, in order to subsidise them: the era, in short, of absolute monarchy in France. The long wars with the English had formed a body of lances, out of which Charles, in 1443, selected 9000 horse, who were

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kept up after the peace, and who, from this period, give a totally new colour to the domestic history of the French monarchy. This institution, while it gave a deathblow to the military part of the feudal fabric, freed the realm from turbulence and anarchy. In the remote parts of France, indeed, military fealty still remained; in Gascony the Gothic government continued standing. But we have no more rushing from the fiefs of Foix and Albret,—no overflowing of Paris by the brigandage of Armagnac; and the Chateaux and Vassalors, who had stimulated these eruptions, now subsided into the staid discipline of Charles's Companies. An event of such vast magnitude demanded more than a passing notice from a writer who had spent seventy pages on the Maid of Orleans; and while we willingly, with M. Michelet, shed a tear over the fate of Joan, we think we have a right to complain of the preposterous disproportion, which can scarce afford a page to the great era of the French monarchy.

The other great act of Charles's civil administration, also too lightly passed over, is the perpetuation of the *taille*, by which the military revolution effected by the Companies of Ordinance was rendered permanent, and which may be regarded as the basis of the French monarchy as it subsisted till the Revolution. In order to estimate the importance of this measure, which imposed a fixed annual subsidy on the nation, without any vote of a national council, it must be remembered that every Assembly of the States General in the reigns of John and Charles VI., had asserted the illegality of taxation without their consent, and had checked the attempts of these monarchs to make even occasional levies on their subjects. The result of these two measures was, that despotism appeared in its most appalling form in the ensuing reign—that of Louis XI.: that the long-bows and lances, which expelled the Plantagenets from France, introduced domestic peace and a regular government; that France, freed from licence and rapine, revived and flourished under that politic monarch. Many curious traits of Louis, while yet the Dauphin, are scattered through M. Michelet's volume. For example:—

Louis the Dauphin, an insatiable reader, brought his library from Dauphiné to Brabant, and received there the first printed books. No man in Europe was better able to appreciate the importance of this new art, if it be true, as is generally reported, that, upon his accession, he sent for printers from Strasburg. One thing is certain,—that he protected them from those who wished to punish them as sorcerers.

Again:—

In all the troubles of Charles's latter reign, great or small, we always find the name of the Dauphin. Continually accused, but never convicted, he appears the most harmless prince in the world. Implacable as he was when he came to the throne, he made all men understand that Brezé and Dammartin, who had disarmed him and chased him from France, had acted as good and loyal servants; and he endeavoured to attach them to him, persuaded that they would serve him as faithfully as they had done his father. Louis was more jealous of his mother's honour than herself, and is said to have struck Agnes Sorel. When Agnes died, every one believed that the Dauphin had poisoned her.

The last possession evacuated by the English was Guienne, a province which had remained united to this crown since the accession of Henry II., and where both the cities and the barons, especially the town of Bordeaux, were much attached to the English dominion. Margaret of Anjou, menaced by the House of York, and strongly solicited by certain Gascon chiefs who were impatient of the French king's military rigour, thought to retrieve her falling fortunes by an attempt to recover Guienne, an enterprise highly popular in England; and she despatched Lord Talbot with 8,000 men, in the

depth of winter, to the mouth of the Garonne, where the Black Prince had landed a century before. The battle of Chatillon followed, and the death of that Paladin of the Middle Age, as M. Michelet calls him. The following is a condensation of his description of that fatal encounter, and of his reflections on the day which avenged Poitiers and Agincourt on the House of Plantagenet, and prognosticated the bloody triumph of the White Rose in England:—

Talbot found the French strongly entrenched, and a formidable artillery in the entrenchments; but he made little account of them, and they endeavoured to confirm him in his contempt. In the morning, while he was at mass, tidings were brought him that the French had fled from their lines. "May I never hear mass again," cried the veteran, "if I do not bear them to the earth." He left all, chaplain and mass, to pursue the enemy. Meanwhile, the French cannoner, Bureau, awaited him behind his entrenchments. Talbot soon appeared on his little horse distinguished by his mantle of scarlet velvet. At the first discharge, all around him fell: he advanced and planted his standard on the French bulwarks. Both Talbot and the standard were carried off by the second discharge; and our army sallying from the lines, the combat took place over his body, which was taken and retaken. Guienne was recovered by the French all but Bordeaux, which was held by an Anglo-Gascon garrison. Bureau told Charles that he would undertake to demolish that city; and the Bordelais, in their dismay, implored the King's clemency. He deprived them of their privileges; and the dominion of the English in France was no more. More than 300 years had passed since England married Aquitaine with Eleanor,—nay more, loved her; often preferred her to herself. The Black Prince was more at home in Bordeaux than in London. When the English lost their last possession on the continent, they left little but ruins; but France gained her nationality. The flux carried William the Conqueror and Henry to England, the reflux brought back Edward and Henry to France.

Of the three great powers which at that period were so closely intermingled by the civil hostilities of France, the most fortunate was the Duchy of Burgundy, which, through the prosperity of the great commercial cities in Flanders, exceeded both England and France in opulence and civilization. The character and court of Philip the Good; the splendid chapters of the Golden Fleece, embellished by the paintings of Van Eyck, and the music of Ockenheim; the early tournaments of the Count of Charolois, afterwards Charles the Bold; the magnificent façade of the Halle aux Draps, at Ypres, exceeding by 100 feet the length of Notre Dame at Paris; these are topics in which the antiquarian zeal of our author waltzes, and in which he has added not a few traits to the invaluable picture which Barante has drawn of the Burgundian glories in that age. The archives of Lille, Liege, Louvain, and of the Burgundian library at Brussels, the recent literature of Belgium, enrich the two chapters of his work which he has devoted to the history and manners of Flanders, and throw no inconsiderable light on the statistics of England and France in that age. But in this, which is, in some respects, the most interesting portion of M. Michelet's work, appears most conspicuously the great blemish in his manner of composition. Instead of ingrafting on the main trunk of his French history such details of Philip's court as might illustrate the age, as M. Villemain has given the peculiarities of each writer whom he characterizes, without departing from the historical style,—instead of insinuating into the stream of his narrative, like Gibbon, such collateral matter as rather quickens than retards its course,—he introduces into the body of his work two chapters of Flemish painting, while the tale of French affairs stands absolutely still. There is also too little of literary history. The first half of the fifteenth century is a great era in the progress of the human mind, which, amid the din

of arms, may be traced in the historical monuments of that time. The transition from Froissart to Monstrelet is like going from a Gothic cathedral to a modern building. The Portuguese Amadis rekindled all the enthusiasm of romantic fiction. The idiom of France received grace and harmony from the verses of Louis Duke of Orleans, in whom she still venerates the father of her lyric poetry. Above all, that narrow stream of ancient literature, which had run for centuries through the blind cloisters of monks and canons, being replenished from beyond the Alps, first came in contact with the vast flood of legendary chronicle or fiction, which, in a living language, overspread the land, and awoke that struggle between the romantic and classic schools, which bounds, as with a shadowy line, the literature of the Middle Ages. Finally, we can find no mention of the celebrated law called the Pragmatic Sanction, passed in 1438, the French Statute of Provisors, by which the Pope was deprived of the collation to episcopal benefices, and the Gallican Church restored to its original constitution under the Carolingian line—the election of bishops by the national clergy. Now, having been conducted, in the former volume by M. Michelet, to the conclusion of the Council of Constance, and the election of Cardinal Colonna (Martin V.), by which France was deprived of her Avignon Vatican, and the favourite policy of the princes of Valois defeated, we are naturally curious to know something of the conduct of the French Church under the new pontiff, and feel disappointment at the total omission of this branch of French history in the present volume. The schism in the papacy is, with the exception of the Reformation, the most remarkable event in Ecclesiastical history; it is also more intimately connected with the domestic annals of France, than with those of any other European state; and by losing sight of the Gallican Church during the forty years succeeding that event, M. Michelet hides the spring of many events in the civil state and revolutions of that monarchy.

Zanoni. By the author of 'Night and Morning.' 3 vols. Saunders & Odey.

In short, I could make neither head nor tail out.

Such is the motto prefixed by Sir E. L. Bulwer to this, the last of his brilliant series of fictions. Whether purposely, for the sake of experiment, or unconsciously, in consequence of a peculiar vein of study, or wilfully, to puzzle simple and to pique thinking readers—we know not, neither care; certain it is that he here wanders far beyond common ken and common sympathy, as to the subject-matter of his romance, and the manner in which it is conducted. The former is mystical, philosophical, fantastical—a web spun of the dreams which wander past the half-shut eye of the imaginative man, when he is nearest the boundary between the visible and the invisible world—and not made up of

The thoughts, the passions, the delights,
Which stir this mortal frame.

We gain some insight into our author's conceptions from a prefatory dialogue, in which the following paragraphs are thrown out:—

"In all works of imagination, whether expressed by words or by colours, the artist of the higher schools must make the broadest distinction between the Real and the True,—in other words, between the imitation of actual life, and the exaltation of Nature into the Ideal. 'The one,' said he, 'is the Dutch School, the other is the Greek.'—'Sir,' said I, 'the Dutch is the most in fashion.'—'Yes, in painting perhaps,' answered my host, 'but in literature.'—'It was of literature I spoke. Our growing poets are all for simplicity and Betty Foy; and our critics hold it the highest praise of a work of imagination, to say that its characters are exact to common life. Even in sculpture.'—'In sculpture!

No—no! there the high ideal must at least be essential!—“Pardon me: I fear you have not seen Souter Johnny and Tam O’Shanter.”—“Ah!” said the old gentleman, shaking his head, “I live very much out of the world, I see. I suppose Shakspeare has ceased to be admired?”—“On the contrary,” people make the adoration of Shakspeare the excuse for attacking everybody else. But then our critics have discovered that Shakspeare is so real!”—“Real! The poet who has never once drawn a character to be met with in actual life—who has never once descended to a passion that is false, or a personage who is real.”

Following closely the model which Sir E. L. Bulwer fancies he has here placed in a new light, he has abstained from giving reality to his personages and events with a sedulous care, which was certain to preclude success. There must be coherence, adjustment of parts, climax of interest, even in a mystical and philosophical *extravaganza*, if it be to take rank as a work of art; whereas ‘Zanoni’ is a strange patchwork of things the most discordant; and we can imagine no better character of the writer of such a work, than is offered by the sketch of Gaetano Pisani, the singular Neapolitan musician, with whose fortunes the tale opens:—

“The Neapolitan musician was not on the whole pleasing to ears grown nice and euphuistic in the more dulcet melodies of the day; and faults and extravaganzas easily discernible, and often to appearance wilful, served the critics for an excuse for their distaste. Fortunately, or the poor musician might have starved, he was not only a composer, but also an excellent practical performer, especially on the violin, and by that instrument he earned a decent subsistence as one of the orchestra at the Great Theatre of San Carlo. Here, formal and appointed tasks necessarily kept his eccentric fancies in tolerable check, though it is recorded that no less than five times he had been deposed from his desk for having shocked the consensito, and thrown the whole band into confusion, by impromptu variations of so frantic and startling a nature, that one might well have imagined that the harpies or witches who inspired his compositions had clawed hold of his instrument. The impossibility, however, to find any one of equal excellence as a performer (that is to say, in his more lucid and orderly moments), had forced his reinstatement, and he had now, for the most part, reconciled himself to the narrow sphere of his appointed adagios or allegros. The audience, too, aware of his propensity, were quick to perceive the least deviation from the text; and if he wandered for a moment, which might also be detected by the eye as well as the ear, in some strange contortion of visage, and some ominous flourish of his bow, a gentle and admonitory murmur recalled the musician from his Elysium or his Tartarus, to the sober regions of his desk. Then he would start as if from a dream—cast a hurried, frightened, apologetic glance around, and, with a crest-fallen, humbled air, draw his rebellious instrument back to the beaten track of the glib monotony. But at home, he would make himself amends for this reluctant drudgery. And there, grasping the unhappy violin with ferocious fingers, he would pour forth, often till the morning rose, strange wild measures, that would startle the early fisherman on the shore below with a superstitious awe, and make him cross himself as if mermaid or sprite had wafted no earthly music in his ear. This man’s appearance was in keeping with the characteristics of his art. The features were noble and regular, but worn and haggard, with black, careless locks, tangled into a maze of curls, and a fixed, speculative, dreamy stare in his large and hollow eyes. All his movements were peculiar, sudden, and abrupt, as the impulse seized him: and in gliding through the streets, or along the beach, he was heard laughing and talking to himself. Withal, he was a harmless, guileless, gentle creature, and would share his mite with any idle lazzaroni, whom he often paused to contemplate as they lay lazily basking in the sun. Yet was he thoroughly unsocial. He formed no friends, flattered no patrons, resorted to none of the merry-makings, so dear to the children of music and the south. He and his art seemed alone suited to each other—both quaint, primitive, unworldly, irregular.”

This Pisani appears but as Prologue. The first scenes of the drama, which opens, after his death, with the trials of the beautiful Viola the *cantatrice*, his daughter, are a reprint of that unfinished romance, ‘Zicci,’ which, on its appearance in the *Monthly Chronicle*, seemed, to us, but a dull puzzle, imitated, and not skillfully, from Schiller’s ‘*Armenian*.’ Here, however, on resuming his story, Sir E. L. Bulwer appears to have changed his aim; at all events, he has wrought out a mere tale of wonder into one of those super-sublime allegories, in which tinselled truisms figure as new discoveries, and obscurity of meaning passes for elevation of thought. We have a couple of sages—the one contemplative, the other active—who are the last of a brotherhood of mystics; and we have a neophyte whom disappointed love for the aforesaid Viola piques into aspirations after superhuman knowledge; these, with sundry minor personages, perform multitudinous evolutions, as in a dream-dance, till the measure leads them into the midst of the French Revolution, where “the charm is wound up.” We fear the reader may find this description of ‘Zanoni’ as confused as we have found the tale. Let him read it for himself, and we will wager that his perceptions will hardly be clearer. A second and more severe perusal may, possibly, make what is mysterious lucid, and what appears absurd be relished as original; but we are not sanguine. Yet beautiful thoughts and musical periods abound everywhere in this strange book. In the earlier scenes, we have frequent glances at the world of Art; for Glyndon, whom Viola rejects for Zanoni the incomprehensible, is a painter. And here is a passage, which, though it contain no new truth, is phrased “with emphasis and discretion”:—

“Man’s genius is a bird, that cannot be always on the wing; when the craving for the actual world is felt, it is a hunger that must be appeased. They who command best the ideal, enjoy ever most the real. See the true artist, when abroad in men’s thoroughfares, ever observant, ever diving into the heart, ever alive to the least as to the greatest of the complicated truths of existence; descending to what pedants would call the trivial and the frivolous. From every mesh in the social web, he can disentangle a grace. And for him each airy gossamer floats in the gold of the sunlight. Know you not that around the animalcule that sports in the water there shines a halo, as around the star that revolves in bright pastime through the space? True art finds beauty everywhere. In the street, in the market-place, in the hovel, it gathers food for the hive of its thoughts. In the mire of politics, Dante and Milton selected pearls for the wreath of song. Who ever told you that Raffaële did not enjoy the life without, carrying everywhere with him the one inward idea of beauty which attracted and embedded in its own amber every straw that the feet of the dull man trampled into mud? As some lord of the forest wanders abroad for its prey, and scents and follows it over plain and hill, through brake and jungle, but, seizing it at last, bears the quarry to its unwitnessed cave—so Genius searches through wood and waste, untiringly and eagerly, every sense awake, every nerve strained to speed and strength, for the scattered and flying images of matter, that it seizes at last with its mighty talons, and bears away with it into solitudes no footstep can invade. Go, seek the world without; it is for art, the inexhaustible pasture ground and harvest to the world within.”

We have searched in vain for a fragment more directly bearing on the story. The following episode might have occurred in any other of our author’s novels; it is in his best satirical vein, a precious morsel of autobiography, the narrator of which is a bravo:—

“I was born at Terracina—a fair spot, is it not? My father was a learned monk, of high birth; my mother—Heaven rest her!—an innkeeper’s pretty daughter. Of course there could be no marriage in the case; and when I was born, the monk gravely declared my appearance to be miraculous. I was

dedicated from my cradle to the altar; and my head was universally declared to be the orthodox shape for a cowl. As I grew up the monk took great pains with my education; and I learned Latin and psalmody as soon as less miraculous infants learn crowing. Nor did the holy man’s care stint itself to my interior accomplishments. Although vowed to poverty, he always contrived that my mother should have her pockets full; and between her pockets and mine there was soon established a clandestine communication; accordingly, at fourteen, I wore my cap on one side, stuck pistols in my belt, and assumed the swagger of a cavalier and a gallant. At that age my poor mother died; and about the same period, my father, having written a History of the Pontifical Bulls, in forty volumes, and being, as I said, of high birth, obtained a Cardinal’s hat. From that time he thought fit to disown your humble servant. He bound me over to an honest notary at Naples, and gave me two hundred crowns by way of provision. Well, Signor, I saw enough of the law to convince me that I should never be rogue enough to shine in the profession. So, instead of spoiling parchment, I made love to the notary’s daughter. My master discovered our innocent amusement, and turned me out of doors; that was disagreeable. But my Ninetta loved me, and took care that I should not lie out in the streets with the lazzaroni. Little jade, I think I see her now, with her bare feet and her finger to her lips, opening the door in the summer nights, and bidding me creep softly into the kitchen, where, praised be the saints! a flask and a manchet always awaited the hungry amoroso. At last, however, Ninetta grew cold. It is the way of the sex, Signor. Her father found her an excellent marriage in the person of a withered old picture-dealer. She took the spouse, and very properly clapped the door in the face of the lover. I was not disheartened, Excellency; no, not I. Women are plentiful while we are young. So, without a ducat in my pocket, or a crust for my teeth, I set out to seek my fortune on board of a Spanish merchantman. That was duller work than I expected; but luckily we were attacked by a pirate—half the crew were butchered, the rest captured. I was one of the last—always in luck, you see, Signor—monks’ sons have a knack that way! The captain of the pirates took a fancy to me. ‘Serve with us,’ said he. ‘Too happy!’ said I. Behold me, then, a pirate! O jolly life! how I blest the old notary for turning me out of doors! What feasting, what fighting, what wooing, what quarrelling! Sometimes we ran ashore and enjoyed ourselves like princes: sometimes we lay in a calm for days together on the loveliest sea that man ever traversed. And then, if the breeze rose and a sail came in sight, who so merry as we? I passed three years in that charming profession, and then, Signor, I grew ambitious. I caballed against the captain; I wanted his post. One still night we struck the blow. The ship was like a log in the sea, no land to be seen from the mast-head, the waves like glass, and the moon at its full. Up we rose; thirty of us and more. Up we rose with a shout; we poured into the captain’s cabin, I at the head. The brave old boy had caught the alarm, and there he stood at the doorway, a pistol in each hand; and his one eye (he had only one!) worse to meet than the pistols were. ‘Yield!’ cried I, ‘your life shall be safe.’—‘Take that,’ said he, and whizz went the pistol; but the saints took care of their own, and the ball passed by my cheek and shot the boatswain behind me. I closed with the captain, and the other pistol went off without mischief in the struggle. Such a fellow he was—six feet four without his shoes! Over we went, rolling each on the other. Santa Maria! no time to get hold of one’s knife. Meanwhile, all the crew were up, some for the captain, some for me—clashing and firing, and swearing and groaning, and now and then a heavy splash in the sea! Fine supper for the sharks that night! At last old Bilboa got uppermost; out flashed his knife; down it came, but not in my heart. No! I gave my left arm as a shield; and the blade went through to the hilt, with the blood spirting up like the rain from a whale’s nostril. With the weight of the blow the stout fellow came down, so that his face touched mine; with my right hand I caught him by the throat, turned him over like a lamb, Signor, and faith it was soon all up with him—the boatswain’s brother, a fat Dutchman, ran

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him through with a pike. 'Old fellow,' said I, as he turned his terrible eye to me, 'I bear you no malice, but we must try to get on in the world, you know.' The captain grinned and gave up the ghost. I went upon deck—what a sight! Twenty bold fellows stark and cold, and the moon sparkling on the puddles of blood as calmly as if it were water. Well, Signor, the victory was ours, and the ship mine; I ruled merrily enough for six months. We then attacked a French ship twice our size; what sport it was! And we had not had a good fight so long, we were quite like virgins at it! We got the best of it, and won ship and cargo. They wanted to pistol the captain, but that was against my laws; so we gagged him, for he scolded as loud as if we were married to him; left him and the rest of his crew on board our own vessel, which was terribly battered; clapped our black flag on the Frenchman's, and set off merrily, with a brisk wind in our favour. But luck deserted us on forsaking our own dear old ship. A storm came on, a plank struck; several of us escaped in the boat; we had lots of gold with us, but no water! For two days and two nights we suffered horribly; but at last we ran ashore near a French seaport. Our sorry plight moved compassion, and as we had money we were not suspected—people only suspect the poor. Here we soon recovered our fatigues, rigged ourselves out gaily, and your humble servant was considered as noble a captain as ever walked deck. But now, alas, my fate would have it that I should fall in love with a silk-mercier's daughter. Ah, how I loved her!—the pretty Clara! Yes, I loved her so well, that I was seized with horror at my past life! I resolved to repent, to marry her, and settle down into an honest man. Accordingly, I summoned my messmates, told them my resolution, resigned my command, and persuaded them to depart. They were good fellows; engaged with a Dutchman, against whom I heard afterwards that made a successful mutiny, but I never saw them more. I had two thousand crowns still left; with this sum I obtained the consent of the silk-mercier, and it was agreed that I should become a partner in the firm. I need not say that no one suspected that I had been so great a man, and I passed for a Neapolitan goldsmith's son instead of a cardinal's. I was very happy then, Signor, very—I could not have harmed a fly! Had I married Clara, I had been as gentle a mercier as ever handled a measure.' The bravo paused a moment, and it was easy to see that he felt more than his words and tone betokened. 'Well, well, we must not look back on the past too earnestly—the sunlight upon it makes one's eyes water. The day was fixed for our wedding—it approached. On the evening before the appointed day, Clara, her mother, her little sister, and myself, were walking by the port, and as we looked on the sea, I was telling them old gossip-tales of mermaids and sea-serpents, when a red-faced, bottle-nosed Frenchman clapped himself right before me, and placing his spectacles very deliberately astride his proboscis, echoed out, *Sacré, mille tonnerres!* this is the damned pirate who boarded the *Niobe!* 'None of your jests,' said I, mildly.—'Ho, ho,' said he; 'I can't be mistaken; help there!' and he gripped me by the collar. I replied, as you may suppose, by laying him in the kennel; but it would not do. The French captain had a French lieutenant at his back, whose memory was as good as his chief's. A crowd assembled; other sailors came up; the odds were against me. I slept that night in prison; and in a few weeks afterwards, I was sent to the galleys. They spared my life, because the old Frenchman politely averred that I had made my crew spare his. You may believe that the oar and the chain were not to my taste. I, and two others, escaped, they took to the road, and have, no doubt, been long since broken on the wheel. I, soft soul, would not commit another crime to gain my bread, for Clara was still at my heart with her sweet eyes; so, limiting my rogeries to the theft of a beggar's rags, which I compensated by leaving him my galley attire instead, I begged my way to the town where I left Clara. It was a clear winter's day when I approached the outskirts of the town. I had no fear of detection, for my beard and hair were as good as a mask. Oh, Mother of Mercy! there came across my way a funeral procession! There, now you know it; I can tell you no more. She had died, perhaps of love;

more likely of shame. Can you guess how I spent that night?—I stole a pickaxe from a mason's shed, and all alone and unseen, under the frosty heavens, I dug the fresh mould from the grave; I lifted the coffin, I wrenched the lid, I saw her again—again! Decay had not touched her. She was always pale in life! I could have sworn she lived! It was a blessed thing to see her once more, and all alone too! But then, at dawn to give her back to the earth—to close the lid, to throw down the mould, to hear the pebbles rattle on the coffin—that was dreadful! Signor, I never knew before, and I don't wish to think now, how valuable a thing human life is. At sunrise I was again a wanderer; but now that my Clara was gone, my scruples vanished, and again I was at war with my betters. I contrived at last, at O——, to get on board a vessel bound to Leghorn, working out my passage. From Leghorn I went to Rome, and stationed myself at the door of the cardinal's palace. Out he came, his gilded coach at the gate. 'Ho, father!' said I; 'don't you know me?'—'Who are you?'—'Your son,' said I, in a whisper. The cardinal drew back, looked at me earnestly, and mused a moment. 'All men are my sons,' quoth he then, very mildly, 'there is gold for thee! To him who begs once, alms are due; to him who begs twice, jails are open. Take the hint, and molest me no more. Heaven bless thee!' With that he got into his coach and drove off to the Vatican. His purse which he had left behind was well supplied. I was grateful and contented, and took my way to Terracina. I had not long passed the marshes, when I saw two horsemen approach at a canter. 'You look poor, friend,' said one of them, halting; 'yet you are strong.'—'Poor men and strong are both serviceable and dangerous, Signor Cavalier.'—'Well said; follow us,' I obeyed, and became a bandit. I rose by degrees; and as I have always been mild in my calling, and have taken purses without cutting throats, I bear an excellent character, and can eat my macaroni in Naples without any danger to life and limb. For the last two years I have settled in these parts, where I hold sway, and where I have purchased land. I am called a farmer, Signor; and I myself now only rob for amusement, and to keep my hand in. I trust I have satisfied your curiosity. We are within a hundred yards of the castle.'

We had marked one or two portraits of the French Terrorists; but we have already given more space to the book than our readers may approve. The very attempt at originality, however, claims a certain respect and attention: how much the more, when made by one standing so high as Sir E. L. Bulwer! It is singular, that so many of the first writers of our time should, in the course of their career, pass through a phase of imaginative creation, alike bewildering to themselves and their friends. We shall be delighted to welcome back the author of 'Rienzi' into the light of common day, from behind 'the seven veils,' where he has been pleased to hide himself. Let him, however, leave the style of 'Zanoni,' with its ill-defined purpose, in his future fictions. All the vices of his former works are here, with one exception,—conceit. Slovenly expressions, idle interjections, and inflated attempts at poetical diction, abound. We miss, however, the direct and personal egotism which laid bare to us the man, the novelist, and the politician, in so many of Sir E. L. Bulwer's former tales. The omission is most welcome.

The Rise and Progress of the Laws of England and Wales. By Owen Flintoff, Esq., M.A. Barrister-at-Law. Richards & Co.

This work is an interesting historical essay, tracing the Laws of England from their antique sources, and pointing out the several streams—British, Saxon, Danish, and Norman—which have, in greater or less proportions, contributed to what our author not unhappily describes as "the great deep." In the second chapter he observes:—"It would be vain to endeavour to trace to its fountain-head every custom that forms part of the ocean of the unwritten law:

we can only say that this or that custom was discovered at such a period, perhaps then just welling up into the future river, or perhaps already a broad and steady stream; or again that such a custom flowed from that distant range of hills where lodged in primeval times an early tribe, the natural lords of the land; or else that it had not risen and commenced its downward course till the children of another people had occupied that region. It seems, therefore, that as it would be useless to seek to fix and determine each part of the great mass of customs which form the common law, the simplest way will be to trace the usages of each of those nations, who now form the united community; and as these respectively must have constituted that body of customs which became afterwards commingled and blended together, it is clear that thus we shall arrive at something like certainty."

On the origin, history, and customs of the Britons, Mr. Flintoff displays considerable erudition, which he communicates in a lucid and agreeable manner. He supposes that the rigours of the Roman conquest were last felt in the reign of the Emperor Claudius; and he advances numerous authorities to prove the high degree of civilization which England enjoyed down to the departure of Constantine, in the year 408 of the Christian era. We learn, from Juvenal, that even in his time Britain was famous for her lawyers:—

"Nunc totus Grævis nostrasque habet orbes Athenas.
Gallia cœquidoc docuit facunda Britannos?
De conducendo loquitur jam rhetore Thule."

Milton remarks, in the second book of his 'History of Britain,'—"Of the Romans we have cause not to say much worse than that they beat us into some civility." Also, speaking of Agricola,—"He caused the noblemen's sons to be bred up in liberal arts; and by preferring the *uits* of Britain before the studies of Gallia, brought them to affect the Latin eloquence, who before hated the language. Then were the Roman fashions imitated, and the gown; after a while, the incitements also and materials of vice and voluptuous life, proud buildings, baths, and the elegance of banquetting, which the foolisher call civility, but was indeed a secret art to prepare them for bondage."

The original laws of the Britons were oral, and recorded in verse by the Bards or Judicial Druids. These laws were first codified by Hoel the Good; and several particulars are noticed, in which they bore a strong resemblance to the laws of England:—

"The Triads and laws of Hoel, both remotely derived from the Bardic lore, thus form the repositories of the usages and customs of the Britons. In their solitary cairns, we see the visible and touching memorials which point out the dwelling-seats of their tribes. In their language, largely mixing with that now spoken, we have another vestige that has travelled in the memories of their children. If again we turn to their ancient laws, we shall find these also existing to a great degree amongst their descendants. * * Amongst other principles which we find laid down in the laws of Hoel, is one, that a witness to an accusation must swear that he knew and saw what he swears to, agreeably to the present well-established rule, and another, that the testimony of one man should not be taken. So the husband and wife could not give evidence respectively against one another; nor could the wife be brought forward to give evidence without her husband; the like thing applying in the case of an infant, for whom his father or guardian must have appeared. Although, however, the wife was considered as part of her husband, yet she had certain rights of her own. Thus the wife of the king could dispose of the thirds given to her by the king; and the wife of a freeman could dispose of all her paraphernalia and such like goods; but this did not hold in the case of the wife of a villanus or bondsman. The wife had also a right to all her articles of dress to which her husband could not lay claim; and it appears she was entitled to a dowry, and a present from her husband immediately after

the marriage; besides which, she received on that occasion an outfit from her own family and connexions, a custom which now remains, it is said, in some parts of Wales."

The number *three* was of the highest consideration amongst our British fathers, and no doubt derived its importance in law from its consequence in religion. The Triads considered a woman the third part of her husband! "*Quælibet uxor quasi tertia pars viri sui censetur.*" There were *three* persons who could not be summoned alone into the Courts of Justice,—"*a monk without his abbot; a wife without her husband; a minor without his parent or guardian.*" There were *three* things which the law might not reach or alter,—"*the purchase of land, effected without fraud, and capable of proof; the judgment of the lord deciding according to right; and ineluctable custom.*" There were *three* occasions on which one might use the property of another, without incurring punishment:—"*when anything was common between two, and one consumed it, there being nothing agreed on to the contrary; when one seized the horse of another, to carry the alarm of an enemy's approach; or, lastly, when one so acted, in order to fetch a priest to a person on the point of death.*"

The Britons had a centesimal division of territory: their *cantred*, or cent-red, was the origin of the present hundred. Mr. Flintoff does not seem to be aware that the division by *cantreds* nominally exists to this day in some of the Irish counties. The British word *Leet* was sometimes used, we are told, as equivalent to a hundred. The Court-Leet was the Hundred-Court.

The institution of Parliaments is to be traced to the Britons as well as the Saxons. If the Saxons introduced their Witenagemot, they found the British *Gorsedd* already established. Amongst the prerogatives of the British kings were,—"*the ultimate proprietors of all lands within his territory; the ownership of the sea and of all unoccupied waste places; a title to the goods of persons committing suicide; also to the property of persons dying without issue.*" The principal officers of the Crown were, the Chancellor and the Master of the Hounds!

The author proposes, not unreasonably, to use the term Anglo-Britons to describe the united population of the country, after the Saxon settlement. He says,—

"In speaking of these German tribes, we shall designate them generally as Saxons; for the term Anglo-Saxons, commonly used, seems inapplicable, inasmuch as it was the Gewissi, or west Saxons, who obtained the supremacy, and not that division of the Saxons called Angles. Nor did the Angles, even united with their other Saxon brethren, constitute anything near one-half of the population of this country, which was, and is, essentially British. As however the Angles conferred their name upon the kingdom at large, after the mass of the British population had become blended with the different Saxon tribes, the term Anglo-Britons seems the best, as descriptive of the general united nation of Saxons and Britons, and as such will be occasionally used."

The system of pecuniary atonement for crimes was introduced by the Saxons. They carried it so far as to set a price, called "*were*" upon every man's life, from a king to a villain. In some cases the penalty was divided between the king and the relatives of the deceased, as fines for certain petty offences are divided now between the Crown and the informer. Our national propensity to boxing is obviously Saxon. Knocking out of teeth was so common amongst our German progenitors, that there was a graduated scale of penalties, according to the importance of the lost implements of mastication. A front tooth, eight shillings; the canine tooth, four shillings; a grinder, sixteen shillings. The low rate on the front tooth shows that the Saxons paid much more regard to the teeth for their

practical usefulness than as ornaments to the person. Their descendants would invert the scale.

The Saxons introduced their various trials by ordeal. These are so familiarly known, that we shall quote only one example of these strange usages:—

"There was another method of trial, viz. by the *Offa execrata*, or Confuted; which was that by which the priests were used to purge themselves, and which they chose, probably, as the least likely to put the party in jeopardy. A morsel of bread was placed on the altar with great preparation and ceremony, which the person to be tried had to eat. If it stuck in his throat, which was improbable, this was to be considered as a token of his guilt."

The system of Frankpledge was one of the most curious of the Saxon institutions. This was a reciprocal engagement between all the inhabitants of a *tything*, for the orderly behaviour of each individual:—

"The next of the Saxon territorial divisions were the Tythings, also called Decennaries and Frihorgs, and which derived their name from containing ten free families. At the head of every tything an officer presided, who was called the head of the fribourg; and every one of the free members was, as we have seen, a security for the rest, pledging himself that each would behave orderly, and stand to the inquiries and awards of justice, from which reciprocal engagement and guarantee this sort of community was also called *frankpledge*. If any of them fled from justice, the Tything was allowed thirty-one days to produce him. If he did not then make his appearance, the head of the fribourg might take two principal persons of his own tything, and the head and two other members of each of three adjoining tythings, and might, by himself and these others, making together twelve, purge himself and his tything from any privy to the offender's escape: but if he was not able to purge himself by this corroboration, he and his tything had of themselves to make compensation to the party injured."

In the burgh-mote, the folk-mote, the shire-mote of the Saxons, we have the originals of the borough-courts, hundred-courts, and county-courts of modern times. The latter court was held, in the Saxon times, under circumstances which, picturesque as they were, we should not propose to revive in the present state of the climate of England:—

"The shire-moots were originally held in the open air, and generally under the shadow of ancient trees, or on the old tumuli, or within the Druidical circles, agreeably to the favourite traditions and recollections of the people. Here were determined most of the pleas in which the king was a party, and also the rights of the Church."

Mr. Flintoff notices an excellent principle of Saxon policy in the following sentence:—

"It has been already observed, that justice was almost invariably administered by the territorial courts; and indeed it was a maxim, which exists also in the time we live in, that the king should not be resorted to as long as justice could be obtained in the proper inferior tribunals."

Indeed, our central or superior Courts, the Curia Regis, Chancery, Exchequer, and Common Pleas, were Norman establishments. The principle of "*bringing justice home to every man's door*," came to us from the forests of Germany.

The Saxons, like the Gauls, computed time, not by days, but by *nights*. Their public ordinances were dated of the night, as modern acts of Parliament *ought* to be, considering the hours at which the business of legislation is transacted. We retain traces of this Saxon usage in the familiar phrases "*se'night*," or seven-nights, and "*fortnight*," or fourteen nights.

The three Saxon orders were, the Sovereign, the Eorls or Thanes, and the Ceorls—from which comes the word churl. The Saxon Kings assumed the title of *Basileus*, the style of the Byzantine Emperors. The Ceorl might rise to the rank of a Thane:—

"Amongst other British customs retained amongst the Ceorls, was the important one, that a person of this class might rise to the rank of a Thane. For a Ceorl held five hydes of freehold land, which was also afterwards enjoyed by his son and grandsons; the last was entitled to be admitted into the order of Sithcundmen or Sighthendmen. This principle shows the spirit of freedom which prevailed from the earliest times of British and Saxon history, and that the villains were by no means the contemned class which the modern sound of their denomination would convey. * * Amongst the Saxon customs was that called '*The Old English Law of Promotion*,' according to which, if a merchant crossed the sea three times at his own risk, he obtained the rank of a Thane. This was, however, only personal in him, not going to his children."

The inquiry into the influence of the Normans upon the laws of England is the same as the discussion of the feudal system. There is nothing original in our author's views upon this subject.

Mr. Flintoff shows that the system of Saxon, or Anglo-British jurisprudence, formed the basis of the Common Law of England.

"When the Conqueror ascended the English throne, claiming it in right of the will of Edward the Confessor, and not obtaining his title from a notice of conquest over the people, which he carefully disclaimed, but for the feudal meaning of the term conquest, which signifies *acquest*, or newly acquired feudal rights, he solemnly swore, in the fourth year of his reign, that he would observe the ancient and approved laws of the kingdom, particularly those of Edward the Confessor, and also ordered that twelve Saxons in each county should make inquiry, and certify what those laws were. Subsequently to this, it was solemnly ordained, in a general council, that the laws of Edward, with such alterations and additions as the Conqueror himself had made, should in all things be observed."

He enumerates five principal changes made by the Norman *acquest* in the laws of the Anglo-Britons:—

1. Among the first of these alterations we may reckon the separation of the ecclesiastical courts from the civil, effected in order to ingratiate the new king with the popish clergy, who for some time before had been endeavouring, all over Europe, to exempt themselves from the secular power, and whose demands the Conqueror, like a politic prince, thought it prudent to comply with, by reason that their reputed sanctity had a great influence over the minds of the people; and because all the little learning of the times was engrossed into their hands, which made them necessary men, and by all means to be gained over to his interests. * * 2. Another violent alteration of the English constitution consisted in the depopulation of whole counties, for the purposes of the king's royal diversion; and subjecting both them, and all the ancient forests of the kingdom, to the unreasonable severities of forest laws imported from the continent, whereby the slaughter of a beast was made almost as penal as the death of a man. * * 3. A third alteration in the English laws was by narrowing the remedial influence of the county courts, the great seats of Saxon justice, and extending the *original* jurisdiction of the king's justiciars to all kinds of causes, arising in all parts of the kingdom. To this end the *aula regia*, with all its multifarious authority, was erected; and a capital justiciary appointed, with powers so large and boundless, that he became at length a tyrant to the people, and formidable to the crown itself. The constitution of this court, and the judges themselves who presided there, were fetched from the du-ry of Normandy; and the consequence naturally was, the ordaining that all proceedings in the king's courts should be carried on in the Norman, instead of the English language: a provision the more necessary, because none of his Norman justiciars understood English; but resembling those badges of slavery which are imposed upon a conquered people. This lasted till King Edward the Third obtained a double victory,—over the armies of France in their own country, and their language in our court here at home. * * 4. A fourth innovation was the introduction of the trial by combat, for the decision of all civil and criminal questions of fact in the last resort. This was the imme-

morial practice first reduced to the Burgundian and from the last of the French and military estates, a tenure, which gave train of liefs, primer, and fines for the maxim of land were immediately

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moral practice of all the northern nations, but first reduced to regular and stated forms among the Burgundi about the close of the fifth century; and from them it passed to other nations, particularly the Franks and the Normans. * * 5. But the last and most important alteration, both in our civil and military polity, was the engrafting on all landed estates, a few only excepted, the fiction of feudal tenure, which drew after it a numerous and oppressive train of servile fruits and appendages, aids, reliefs, primer seisms, wardships, marriages, escheats and fines for alienation; the genuine consequences of the maxim then adopted, that all the lands in England were derived from, and holden, mediately or immediately, of the crown."

We cannot conclude our notice of this ingenious and useful essay, without quoting a passage from the chapter on the Rise and Progress of the Statute Law, in which the author credits the reign of Charles II.—in other respects the most disgraceful period in English history—with the enactment of many of the best and most salutary laws upon the Statute Book of England.

"The fourth period, which we are next to mention, is after the restoration of King Charles the Second: immediately upon which, the principal remaining grievances, the doctrine and consequences of military tenures, were taken away and abolished, except in the instance of corruption of inheritable blood, upon attainder of treason and felony. And though the monarch, in whose person the royal government was restored, and with it our ancient constitution, deserves no commendation from posterity, yet in his reign, wicked, sanguinary, and turbulent as it was, the concurrence of happy circumstances was such, that from thence we may date, not only the re-establishment of our church and monarchy, but also the complete restitution of English liberty, for the first time, since its total abolition at the Conquest. For therein not only these slavish tenures, the badge of foreign dominion, with all their oppressive appendages, were removed from incumbering the estates of the subject; but also an additional security of his person from imprisonment was obtained, by that great bulwark of our constitution, the Habeas Corpus Act. These two statutes, with regard to our property and persons, form a second Magna Charta, as beneficial and effectual as that of Running-Mead. That only pruned the luxuries of the feudal system; but the statute of Charles the Second extirpated all its slaveries: except perhaps in copyhold tenure; and there also they are now in great measure enervated by gradual custom, and the interposition of our courts of justice. Magna Charta only, in general terms, declared, that no man shall be imprisoned contrary to law: the Habeas Corpus Act points him out effectual means, as well to release himself, though committed even by the king in council, as to punish all those who shall thus unconstitutionally misuse him. To these we may add the abolition of the prerogative of purveyance and pre-emption; the statute for holding triennial parliaments; the Test and Corporation Acts, to secure at once both civil and religious liberty; the abolition of the writ de heretico comburendo; the statute of frauds and perjuries, a great and necessary security to private property; the statute for distribution of intestates' estates; and that of amendments and jeofails, which cut off those superfluous niceties which so long had disgraced our courts; together with many other wholesome acts that were passed in this reign, for the benefit of navigation and the improvement of foreign commerce, and the whole, when we likewise consider the freedom from taxes and armies which the subject then enjoyed, will be sufficient to demonstrate this truth, 'that the constitution of England had arrived to its full vigour, and the true balance between liberty and prerogative was happily established by law in the reign of Charles the Second.'"

This extraordinary contrast between the legislature and the executive, subsequent to the Restoration, has been ably noticed by Mr. Fox, in his 'History of James II.,' and Mr. Burke has admirably explained the paradox in his 'Thoughts on the Cause of the Present Discontents.'—"The laws," he says, "reach but a very little way. Constitute government how you please, infinitely the greater part of it must depend upon

the exercise of the powers which are left at large to the prudence and uprightness of ministers of state. Even all the use and potency of the laws depends upon them. Without them, your commonwealth is no better than a scheme upon paper, and not a living, active, effective constitution."

Journal of a Tour in Greece. By William Mure, of Caldwell. 2 vols. Blackwood.

GREECE has been so often visited by scholars, antiquarians, topographers, and tourists, that its classic interest must be nearly exhausted, and a modern traveller can only hope to engage the attention of general readers by sketches of living manners, and of the social changes produced by the late revolution. Mr. Mure has endeavoured to combine an account of the existing condition of the Greeks with classical and antiquarian researches, to which, unfortunately, he devotes for the larger portion of his pages. After the careful scrutiny of the historical sites of Greece by Dodwell and Leake, there remained but little to be gleaned by a traveller who made only a rapid and hasty tour through the country. We regret that Mr. Mure did not confine himself more closely to the delineation of Greek society, because he seems to have been an impartial observer, of acute judgment, and possessing that best sign of enlightened philanthropy, a disposition to hope rather than to fear. His sketches of life are often happy, and we shall select some of the most novel and striking.

On our author's arrival at Corfu, he found public attention much engaged by an adventure of one of the Buonaparte family, the son of Lucien, who had been banished from Rome, after narrowly escaping the scaffold for the murder of a peasant on his father's estates. Excited by the accounts which the English officers gave of the abundance of game on the opposite coast of Turkey, he was not daunted by learning that it had recently become dangerous to pursue it, in consequence of the Turks viewing the sportsmen as a set of poachers.

"The spirit of a Buonaparte, however, was not to be restrained within the same bounds as that of an English soldier or an Albanian mountaineer; and the prince, on one of his first expeditions across the channel, about a week before my arrival, had not only succeeded in picking a quarrel, but in shooting a pair of Turks, one on each side of him, by a right and left discharge of his double-barrelled gun, and escaping without damage to his boat. On the real merits of the case it was not easy to form an opinion, as they had not been, nor under the circumstances was it likely that they ever could be, very nicely sifted; while the reports of the prince himself, and the representations transmitted by the aggrieved parties, were, as may be supposed, widely at variance with each other. It appears, however, that the catastrophe was the result of a dispute with the officer stationed at the landing-place, relative to the payment of harbour dues; and that the prince, ignorant of the customs or language of the country, and suspecting an attempt at imposition, had resisted the demand. According to his own account he only fired in self-defence, and not until he saw a musket levelled at his breast. The statement of the Turkish authorities, on the other hand, distinctly made him out to be the aggressor."

It is creditable to the moderation of the Turkish authorities, that they listened to the explanations of the English governor, and were contented with the removal of the homicide from the island. From Corfu Mr. Mure proceeded to Ithaca, where he endeavoured to ascertain the localities of the Odyssey. He doubts, very reasonably, several identifications asserted by his predecessors, and justifies his scepticism by the following comment on Sir William Gell's asserted discovery of the School of Homer:—

"I was assured at Vathy, that the title of School of Homer was invented by the Papa, whose hospi-

tality Gell enjoyed on occasion of his visit, for the purpose of amusing his guest. The old gentleman, I understood, was still alive, and often chuckled with delight over his ingenuity in outwitting the celebrated English antiquary at his own art; and still more at this creation of his fancy having been immortalized with so much pomp and circumstance in the standard work on Ithacan topography. This story seems to be confirmed by the circumstance, that Lenke, who visited the place in the same year as Gell, says nothing of any such name. Be this as it may, the title is now become inveterate in 'popular' tradition; and the villagers point out with patriotic pride the platform below as the place of instruction, and the niches in the wall as the book-shelves, asserting that there had once been the remains of tables and benches. The ruined building above, they describe as the 'Schoolmaster's house.'"

On landing in Acarnania, Mr. Mure met a colony or horde of the Wallachian shepherds, who have often been confounded by hasty travellers with the descendants of the ancient Greeks. His description of these immigrants is worthy of notice, for it tends to elucidate what Balbi has left obscure, the ethnography of south-eastern Europe.

"This colony, together with some others spread along the coast, are neither natives of the district they occupy—which indeed seemed totally devoid of indigenous inhabitants—nor of genuine Hellenic blood; but are nomadic shepherds of Wallachian race, who come down annually with their flocks, when the herbage fails in their native mount Pinus on the Thessalian frontier, to the warmer region and extensive grassy plains on the sea-shore. For the use of these they pay a tax to the proprietor or the Greek government. In spite of the squalid misery of their habits, they possess considerable wealth in live stock of all kinds. This encampment, consisting of sixteen families, occupied with its herds not only the hilly region in its own immediate vicinity, but the rich though swampy and uncultivated plains on the banks of the neighbouring Achelous, which were covered with oxen, sheep, and horses. Their wanderings, however, are not confined to this part of Greece, or to the north side of the Isthmus. We fell in with troops of them even in Peloponnesus, invariably characterized by the same athletic powers of body and rude simplicity of manners, which, together with their Wallachian tongue, and some peculiarities of dress, distinguish them from the lively race among whom they sojourn. I might have been inclined to distrust the impression produced by the first view of a novel and picturesque costume, worn by a people of strange and ferocious appearance, had I not afterwards found them, both from my own further observation and on the authority of others, to be generally distinguished by the same Patagonian peculiarities that fixed my attention on first acquaintance. Their appearance, however, is no true index of their character; for they are said to possess as little of the martial spirit of the Greek mountaineers as of their lawless disposition; but are a quiet inoffensive race, whose chief or only care is to husband their store, and live in charity with the population of the countries they frequent. Struck by the classic beauty of their persons, I would fain have supposed them to be descendants of the old Pelagic aborigines of their native mountains; but this is belied by their Wallachian tongue. They are said, however, to possess another claim to our classical sympathies, as representing the Roman colonies settled by the later emperors in Dacia, and afterwards blended into one people with the natives of the districts they occupied. The features of those with whom I made acquaintance, certainly partook more of the Italian than the Grecian character. The strong Latin element in the Wallachian tongue seems also to support this view; and their dress, consisting of a tunic and loose pantaloon, instead of the Albanian jacket and fustanella, has been not inaptly compared to that of the Dacian captives in the triumphal monuments of Rome."

The discomforts of travelling in Greece began to be felt at Katochi, and increased rather than diminished as the traveller advanced. In general, he could not find either chair, table, or bedstead; fireplaces were rare, cleanliness unknown. Even the residence of the Demarchus was in a

worse condition than a Highland hut or Irish cabin.

"It consisted of but one room, divided by a black curtain into two compartments—one of which was devoted to domestic purposes, and to the accommodation of a family consisting of a wife and six children; the other was the reception chamber of the proprietor, narrow, dark, and empty, with nothing to relieve the bare walls but the projecting Turkish fireplace. Coffee and pipes were produced, and my host seating himself in the usual squatting position on a mat, in front of the hearth, on which some embers were placed, invited me to do the same on another similar rug appointed for my use, and on which I reclined with the best grace I was master of. No Lord Mayor of London could be more perfectly satisfied with the state of his domestic accommodation in all respects than was this worthy magistrate; and I readily sympathized in the honest pride with which he announced, that the seat assigned me had formerly been habitually occupied by my old friend Sir Richard Church, who, during his campaign in that district, had done him the honour to accept of quarters in his house. He had visited CEniade in the general's company, and knew it, consequently, by its classical name. He also seemed to have some knowledge of the remaining antiquities of the district, and counted over to me on his fingers the names of a number of other ruins of similar character in the neighbourhood, which I would fain have visited had my arrangements permitted. Our interview was brought to a somewhat more hasty conclusion than I could have wished, by a general assault on my person from the live stock in the mat, which rendered my seat, irksome as it was from the first, altogether intolerable; and I rose and took my leave accordingly."

Messalangi must always be an object of interest to Englishmen, from its connexion with the fate of Byron, and from the universal sympathy produced by its fall after the bravest defence recorded in modern history. It is now little better than a shapeless mass of ruins, and its restoration can scarcely be hoped, from the worse than feeble government to which the destinies of Greece have been confided. Mr. Mure dwells at length on the history of the siege, but adds little to our previous information. From Acarnania he proceeded up the Crisean gulf to the ancient port of Cirrha, and followed the track of the pilgrims of old to the site of Delphi, now occupied by the miserable village of Castri. Here he found that some precious monuments of antiquity, recently discovered, are likely to be lost almost as soon as found.

"At Castri, as at other Greek towns founded upon sites of ancient celebrity, the ravages of the late war have been the means of bringing to light many valuable fragments of antiquity. Some of these, previously incased in modern structures, are now, with the inferior class of rubbish of which their masonry was composed, spread over the face of the soil. Others have been excavated in digging foundations for new houses, the sites of which, as might be expected, are chosen by preference on ground previously clear. This was more especially the case in the neighbourhood of the house of the Dénarchus, where we lodged. On the slope immediately below, towards the Pleistus, were strewn numerous architectural fragments, not a few of which were of stately marble very elegantly sculptured. There were also several blocks and slabs of marble covered with inscriptions in tolerable preservation, and which might doubtless be copied in their integrity, with leisure and opportunity for the purpose. Little or no value seemed to attach to these relics in the eyes of the natives, unless in so far as they might be made available in the reconstruction of their ruined houses, to which purpose they were from time to time applied."

In a note, Mr. Mure informs us, that the government had given orders for the preservation of these antiquities, but they were disobeyed by the local authorities. We, however, doubt the sincerity of the government, especially as the most interesting monument of the Classic Ages is left broken into fragments, though capable of being repaired with little difficulty. We allude to the

Chæroean lion, erected on the plains where the last battle was fought in defence of Grecian freedom, over the mound which contained the ashes of the "Sacred Band of Thebes," cut down as one man by the Macedonian phalanx, commemorating, not the valour of the victors, but the unflinching heroism of the vanquished; it is a monument making the warmest appeal to the sympathies of every civilized heart. It marked

—The field where they perished
The truest, the last of the brave,
All gone, and the hope Freedom cherish'd
Gone with them, and sunk in their grave.

Now listen to its history:—

"The mound of earth has since been excavated, and a colossal marble lion discovered, deeply embedded in its interior. This noble piece of sculpture, though now strewn in detached masses about the sides and interior of the excavation, may still be said to exist nearly in its original integrity. It is evident, from the appearance of the fragments, that it was composed from the first of more than one block, although not certainly of so many as its remains now exhibit. None of the fragments, however, seem to have been removed. The different pieces are so scooped out as to leave the interior of the figure hollow, with the twofold object, no doubt, of sparing material and saving expense of transport. I could obtain no authentic information as to the period and circumstances of this discovery. The story told on the spot was, that the celebrated patriot chief Odysseus, when in occupation of this district, had observed a piece of marble projecting from the summit of the mound, which he further remarked, when struck, produced a hollow sound. Supposing, therefore, according to the popular notion, that treasure might be concealed in the interior of the tumulus, he opened it up, and under the same impression broke the lion, which at that time was entire, into pieces; or, as the tradition goes, blew it up with gunpowder. Another account is, that the lion was first discovered by that patriarch among the present race of Hellenic archaeologists, the Austrian consul Gropius; Odysseus being only entitled to the credit of having severed it in pieces. That the government, during the ten years of comparative tranquillity the country has now enjoyed, should have done nothing for its preservation, is another proof how little the regeneration of Greece has done for that of her monuments. It would appear that the marble, with the lapse of ages, had gradually imbedded itself in the soft material that formed its base, so as finally to have sunk, not only beneath the surface of the tumulus, but to judge from the appearance of the excavation, even of the plain itself—a remarkable instance of the effect of time in cornealing and preserving, as well as in destroying, monuments of ancient art."

Mr. Mure speaks very slightly of the attention paid by the Græco-Bavarian government to the preservation of ancient works of art even in Athens, and criticizes severely the erection of a splendid marble palace for Otho, while the streets of his capital are unpaved, undrained and uncleansed. With every disposition to view the future prospects of the Greeks through a favourable medium, he is compelled to confess, that they have reaped none of the benefits which had been anticipated from their revolution. Their cities, including, to some extent, even Athens itself, are heaps of ruins; the greater part of the country is still uncultivated, the roads are infested by robbers, equally cowardly and cruel, the government has no respect for the people, and the people no confidence in the government. "Political prophecies," says our author, "are always hazardous; but certainly existing appearances are not favourable, either to the prosperity or the permanence of the Bavarian dynasty." The organization of the army has destroyed its nationality: the soldiers behave themselves as if they were occupying a hostile country, and treat the peasants with contemptuous cruelty, not surpassed by that of the Turkish Janissaries in their worst days. The following anecdote sufficiently proves the despotism of the

soldiers, and the moral degradation of the unfortunate peasants:—

"Allusion has already been made to the dictatorial department of our military attendants towards the peasantry, and indeed towards all classes of their fellow-citizens whose status in society gave them no special claim to personal respect. Nor did this overbearing spirit appear to depend on the genius of the individual *stratiate*, but was common to them all, as part and parcel of their just and proper dignity of office. If a ford was sought, the nearest countryman was not requested, but peremptorily summoned to conduct us to it; if the way was intricate, he was ordered to act as guide, or forthwith to find a substitute; and the least hesitation or delay seldom failed to bring down a volley of the most approved military anathemas on the head of the offender. To return, however, to the case immediately in point; on reaching the khan I found our escort, who had quitted the convent a few minutes earlier, busy in inflicting the most humiliating species of corporal punishment on the person of the khanjee—a handsome, athletic, and rather respectable-looking young man—belabouring his back and shoulders with the flat of his sword, and at intervals bestowing virulent kicks on that part of the hinder quarter where a blow is supposed to convey the severest wound to personal honour. On occasion of any momentary respite from the fury of the attack, the sufferer attempted, with mild voice, and gentle but earnest expostulation, to convince his enemy of the unreasonableness of his conduct; and then, as the assault recommenced with redoubled fury, he again turned his back till the shower of blows was overpast, when he once more faced about, and with the same calmness renewed the thread of his argument. I immediately interfered, and inquiring the cause of the dispute, was informed, that the monks had for some time past been in the nightly habit of leaving the convent, which, as already said, was on the outskirts of the commune, for fear of the robbers, and taking up their abode till morning in a more central part of the village; that the Chomphylax had proposed to go in quest of them, and summon them to return and reopen their establishment for my accommodation; that he had ordered the khanjee to act as his guide to the place, but that the man had declined compliance, urging the lateness of the hour, and the necessity of attending on his other guests, of whom several besides our party were already assembled within the hut. Nor indeed was it reasonable to expect that the poor fellow would be the willing instrument of depriving himself of a customer, from whom he doubtless expected to realize the ordinary receipts of several days. I settled the dispute by declaring my intention of remaining at his khan, rather than subject the reverend gentlemen to any inconvenience, or myself to the delay and trouble of preparing new quarters. The matter being thus concluded, mine host, far from bearing any apparent ill-will to his castigator, seemed neither mortified nor disconcerted by what had passed; and ten minutes afterwards the two were conversing together by the fireside upon general topics, with as much ease and good-humour as if nothing had happened."

As Mr. Mure's tour in Greece did not occupy more than eight or nine weeks, he can only give us the result of hasty impressions; but the imperfections of the Græco-Bavarian government are written in such legible characters on the entire face of the country, that "he who runs may read."

What to Teach, and How to Teach it.—Part I. Cultivation of the Intellect. By Henry Mayhew. W. Smith.

THERE is so much that is good and useful in this closely packed pamphlet, that it is painful to discover in it anything that detracts from its general utility. It is not the fault merely that irritates, but the disappointment; for there is nothing so vexatious as a sophism out of place, an error which does not form part and parcel of the mind into which it has stolen. In many respects this little work is the expansion merely of an idea, which we are constantly striving to keep before our readers,—namely, that education (the only

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true and honest mode of dealing with the unformed intellect) has for its object the assisting nature in the development of the pupil's faculties, by calling forth, in an orderly and scientific manner, those powers, which she has left to the chance operations of external circumstance:—

"When we speak of the education of Man, we allude simply to the act of educating or expanding his nature. To educate a man is, therefore, literally, to bring out his manliness; to develop and strengthen, not any one attribute or accident of his constitution, but all those peculiar powers and qualities which make him, or rather distinguish him as Man. Now the peculiar faculties or distinctive properties of human nature, are evidently its intellectual and moral capacities. Man is possessed of, and characterised by, not only understanding, but conscience. He can feel the rectitude and criminality of actions, as well as perceive the agreements and differences of things. By the majority of persons, however, the phrase is understood as signifying the evolution of only one of these faculties. Education is commonly conceived to consist of, and the labours of the greater number of our instructors are accordingly directed to solely the intellectualisation of the subject. While, to many people, the term has not apparently even this limited construction; for (judging by the process adopted in several of our schools, and especially in those which are esteemed as among the best,) it would seem that Education is thought, both by the tutors and parents of the scholars there, to lie almost entirely in what may be called the latinisation of the being. Indeed, I am not acquainted with any system, whether intended or not to intellectualise, that does positively anything else than parrotise the pupil."

This, in our estimation, is the key to the entire science, a key which has long been lost and buried in the ocean of pedantries and of prejudices, that still occupy the heads of teachers, in so much that Petronius's remark is as true at this moment as when he wrote it; and man's intellect is now, as then, "stultified" by the trashy inutilities which pass in the schools for education. The first fruit of this sound view of the subject is the deduction, that if we are by education to assist nature, we should imitate her processes,—that is, act by the instrumentality of things, and not by words merely. It is known to most sound reasoners, that the rational faculty is not fully developed before the approach of puberty; whereas the senses exist in the requisite activity from early childhood. To deal, then, in verbal abstractions, and to attempt the communication of ideas to children who have yet to become acquainted with their prototypes in nature, is, indeed, (in the language of our author) to parrotize them.

A second consequence is, that we should imitate nature, by adopting her mode of soliciting the child's attention to the objects with which we wish to engage it. Nature, as every one knows, fixes attention by acting on the emotions, by exciting some interest in the thing to be considered, without which it is impossible for the child, or man either, to dwell on any one idea a sufficiently long time to thoroughly examine it. Now, the interests attached to things by nature are all intrinsic. The bare aspect of an external, by the emotion of pleasure or pain that accompanies it, spontaneously fixes the attention in proportion to its importance. Among the emotions most subsidiary to nature's education, is curiosity, an emotion of wide and great applicability. But it is very evident that an education commenced in words is wholly beyond the reach of curiosity. Words that excite no ideas, can excite no emotion; hence the languor and apathy which surround ordinary teaching, and which are combated in schools by a system of extrinsic rewards and punishments. Our author denounces this error with an energy proportionate to the inveteracy of the prejudice by which it is upheld. We may be forced, he says, to attend to an object by the fear of punishment, the hope of reward, or solicited by a recollection of the de-

light previously experienced on the contemplation of a similar object, or by the novel and extraordinary character of its appearance or occurrence. It is needless to add, that the extrinsic motives are alone employed in most of our public schools, and that the brutal punishment of flogging is not only still the sole pivot upon which the discipline of public education turns, but is stoutly maintained by teachers, as the only one capable of practical application. We shall, therefore, take the licence of abridging Mr. Mayhew's exposure of this abuse. Of flogging he says,—

"It shows the grossest ignorance of Man's nature. I know no two places where the principles of human action are less studied and known—and yet none where there should be more—than in our schools and prisons. The birch is the great intellectual preceptor in the one—the gallows is the grand moral teacher in the other: both are branches of the same tree—the rod, indeed, may be said to be made of the twigs from which the gibbet is grown. But the birch is even more wrong than the gallows. Allowing corporal punishment to be justifiable, still it is most unjust to ill-use a boy for not attending to his task. To excite his attention is the whole and sole duty of the teacher; and if, from the want of a proper knowledge of the means, he fail in so doing, it is surely HE who should be made to suffer—for undertaking and receiving a certain sum to do that, of the very first principle of which he shows himself to be utterly ignorant. As an instrument of education, however, the birch is totally useless. The dread of it may direct the attention of the pupil for awhile to the task, but it never can impress the matter, for any length of time, on the mind. That which we are forced to acquire through fear, we soon forget; but that which we learn with delight, lives in the brain for years. The rhymes learnt in the nursery are ever the greenest spots in memory's waste; whereas, the task taught at school soon fades from our recollection. But the birch is not only useless—it is positively pernicious as an instrument of education. It associates pain with that with which the Great Author of human nature has connected intense pleasure—the acquisition of knowledge; and so creates in the pupil an habitual aversion to all study and contemplation. Thus it does a greater wrong to the man than it does to the child; it plucks out the natural and instinctive love of knowledge which God has planted in his heart. But the use of the birch inflicts a still severer injury upon the moral, than it does upon the intellectual, being. It makes fear a principle of action, and thus breeds habits of cunning, lying, and hypocrisy in the child, which can hardly fail to grow and strengthen with the man; it evokes and cherishes all the evil and malevolent impulses of our nature—anger, hatred, revenge—and the dark swarm of black and savage passions that spring up like giants from the dragon's-tooth cruelty, and consequently crushes in an equal degree, all those good and benevolent feelings that live and flourish on kindness."

The prize system, if not equally cruel, is quite as absurd. It is, as the author well remarks, a necessitated consequence of the teacher's ignorance of that mainspring of his art, the power of exciting attention in the pupil:—

"The attachment of this extrinsic reward does a double wrong to the scholar. It teaches him, in the first place, that there is a greater prize than the acquisition of the knowledge itself. It says to the young inquirer, as plainly as it can speak, that study and contemplation are dull, irksome, and unprofitable things in themselves, and that this is a reward for doing that which is naturally unpleasant and repulsive. A child should be taught to seek knowledge for the beauty of the thing itself. He should be made to feel that there can be no higher premium for the pursuit of truth, than the intense happiness which God has linked with the discovery of it in the mind, and certainly he should not be given to imagine that a silver medal, a gold pen, a picture book, or some such trumpery, is the chief thing to be gained by it. Moreover, this prize-giving system cannot fail to develop among the pupils feelings of jealousy, envy, and all those hateful and malignant passions which necessarily arise on any interference by others with

the gratification of our desires. It breeds habits of selfishness, and rivalry in and among those with whom we should endeavour to educe and cherish only sympathy and love."

Under the influence of this train of ideas, Mr. Mayhew is led to prefer *visd voce* teaching and experimental inquiry, to the instrumentality of books; and, in the main, we agree with him. The use of books, amongst other evils, disposes the teacher to develop the memory at the expense of judgment. It assists him to carry the student from the present into the past, disconnecting that past from the future, which is the great sphere of man's activity. We cannot, however, go along with Mr. Mayhew to the extent of saying, that "whatever is communicable by literary means, may be as well, if not as forcibly communicated *visd voce*;" and thence to infer, that the art of reading and writing is to be deferred in the business of Education. It is unquestionably true, as the author puts it, that—

"It is from the fact that we give the pupil a knowledge of little else than reading and writing in our schools of the present day, and so turn him upon the world, destitute of all PRINCIPLE—intellectual as well as moral—leaving the REAL EDUCATION of the being ENTIRELY to himself—that the instruction now given is so often a curse, rather than a blessing, both to the individual and society at large. To teach a person all that is known, and to implant in him such a spirit of inquiry as shall make him seek to increase the knowledge respecting the order and harmony of the beautiful world without him, and also of the still more beautiful world of thought and feeling within him, is, or rather should be, the great aim and end of all education."

But it is surely pushing the consequence to an absurd extent, to assume as a consequence, that—

"Having given the pupil this knowledge, and implanted in him this spirit, we are then to add a knowledge of reading—so that he may be able to trace the history and progress of it, which is extremely curious and interesting—and of writing—so that he may be able (should he have it in his power, by any new discovery, to increase the general knowledge) to give that discovery to the world. We must recollect that, educationally considered, writing is the means of educating those who are absent and future—reading, the means of being educated by those who are absent and past—and speaking, the means of educating those who are present."

We have always insisted, and still do insist, that, with very young children, the education of the senses should precede technical literary training; and that mere desk-work should be wholly avoided, till after the completion of the first septenary period of life; and then slowly and gradually adopted, as the intelligence and bodily constitution strengthens. But it surely will strike Mr. Mayhew, on a moment's reflection, that the permanent symbology of written and printed characters does, in a greater degree, effect that which words themselves perform for the intellect, namely, so fix the idea as to enable us to study it at leisure. How few are they who command their thoughts to an extent enabling them to extemporize on their most familiar subjects. To most persons, the act of writing, by its slowness, assists in methodizing and ordering their matter; and the physical image of the words placed before the eye is necessary, to centralize observation, paragraph by paragraph, and thought by thought, so as to arrive at a sound and a lucid conclusion. We do not pretend that these arts are a *sine quâ non* to sound thinking; for many a vigorous thinker will be found among intellectual artificers, who might put our learned pedantry to the blush; but these, we hold, form the exceptions, and not the rules; and however much it is to be regretted that reading and writing are abused as instruments, we still contend, that they both shorten the labour of learning and of retaining, and

strengthen the judgment by calling it into more frequent activity. On the use of reading and writing, as essentials of practical life, it is unnecessary to add a word.

This, it seems to us, is the great mistake of the little volume before us: but we have likewise to lament the very metaphysical points of view from which the author has regarded his subject. The laws of intellect, he tells us in his advertisement, "he has derived from the lectures of Dr. Brown on the philosophy of the human mind." It would have been more satisfactory, if the inquirer had taken them from the study of the infant subject. We do not, for example, think that he would then have involved himself in the labyrinth of abstractions set down in chapter XVI., and talked of not supposing "two or more things appearing same, or more same, to one person than another." All imperfect judgment consists, either in this very appearance, or (less frequently) in its opposite, the discovering diversities where they do not really exist: but that every man is not equally capable of the fixation requisite for avoiding these mistakes, he himself admits, when he speaks of temperament. The fact is, that the same object or idea, if it be the least complex, does not, and cannot, appear to all men perfectly alike, and no education could make it do so.

In conclusion, however, we recommend the book, such as it is, not only to professional teachers, but to parents: for as long as parents remain in ignorance of the truths it inculcates, teachers will continue indolent and careless of them, and education remain defective.

OUR LIBRARY TABLE.

Henry de Pomeroy, or the Eve of St. John: a Legend of Cornwall and Devon, by Mrs. Bray. 3 vols.—Mrs. Bray's novels are the best of her works, and 'Henry de Pomeroy' is among the best of her novels. An old tradition which clings to the tree-mantled ruin of Berry Pomeroy Castle, and another belonging to the chapel on St. Michael's Mount, have been combined by a legitimate exercise of the romancer's art, with a filling-up of monastic life, exhibited in the jovial doings and subtle wiles of the Monks of Tavistock Abbey. In this haunt of good cheer, quaint learning, and slender piety, Mrs. Bray is thoroughly at home: her antiquarian knowledge is turned to good account, and that sly sense of the humorous which, more or less, marks her works, even when she herself is the object, imparts to the picture a raciness, adding largely to its attraction. The least happily conceived portion of her tale, is the mystery which hangs over the birth of its heroine. Her hero, too, Henry de Pomeroy,—if compared with her portraits of the Abbot, the Sacristan, the fool Patch, or the Miller's Daughter, Grace Bolt, is but one of those carmine-cheeked and coal-black whiskered gentlemen, whom young ladies delight to paint on vellum, or to embroider on canvas. Lady Alicia is but another version of the distressed mother, who has been the common property of play-wrights and poem-spinners, ever since Taste threw off the trammels of Classicism. In painting scenery, Mrs. Bray is always happy, though always diffuse. In fine, though this last of her novels made us yawn more than once, there was no laying it down till the fatal "Finis" was reached.

The Price of Fame, by Elizabeth Youatt, 3 vols.—Miss (or Mistress) Youatt has a very limited notion of fame and its price. Her hero, Nicolo Ferrante, the very image of Titian's portrait of Ariosto (that glory among the glories of the Manfredi gallery), is an author who writes a terribly atheistical poem, which turns the heads, and withers the hearts of all the young gentlemen betwixt Lombardy and Calabria. Wives sleep with the forbidden book under their pillows, cheat their husbands, and go mad—maidens, on the strength of but half a peep into this Abudah's chest, are maddened, and driven forth into the bye-ways of passion. The contriver of this fearful charm, meanwhile, leads a sort of wild life, suffering more than his most hapless victim. All this accords with the morbid taste of a by-gone epoch, which it is

needless further to denounce. But the lady under notice has wrought out her unfortunate conception with force of hand and luxuriance of colour, sufficient to warrant the kindly critic's serious remonstrance. The hues and the passions of Italy are at her command—why should she not distribute the one, and exhibit the other, in some story, the morality of which is less questionable?

The third lady, who here adds another volume to the novelist's library—we mean Mrs. S. C. Hall,—would have been placed first, in right of merit, were these 'Sketches of Irish Character' an original work, instead of a re-issue. It is true that a few new tales are added, but the majority have already passed the ordeal. The volume is a very handsome one; most liberally illustrated. Its principal attractions are the Irish Girls, by McClise, which are transferred from the Picturesque Annuals of former years, to a second duty here: but the wood-vignettes by Herbert, Franklin, Harvey, Brooke, Crowley, Cruikshank, McClise, and others, are most of them, characteristic, and some of them capital; witness 'The Pattern Tent,' (p. 211). For such a clever bit of reality, we would willingly give all the Lady Macbeths and Sleeping Beauties the artist has yet painted.

Rutilius and Lucius, by R. J. Wilberforce, M.A.—Archdeacon Wilberforce has written this romance as a vehicle for arguments in support of the doctrine of the Apostolical Succession. Divested of the controversy, the tale would possess some interest as a careful delineation of manners in the third century; but the consistency of the characters has been sacrificed, in order to maintain the imputed force of the reasoning.

Philosophic Nuts, or the Philosophy of Things, as developed from the study of the Philosophy of Words, by E. Johnson, Esq.—This work, of which the earlier portions were noticed with praise in the *Athenæum* (No. 712), has proceeded happily to its conclusion, and, under the existing circumstances of British literature, forms a valuable contribution to the intellectual philosophy of our country. The prejudice against etymology is, however, still so strong amongst us, as to interfere with the probable success of the volume; and we think it advisable, therefore, to repeat the author's assertion, that the present publication, like the *Divisions of Purley*, though conversant with etymologies, does not rest upon them, for the validity of its conclusions; and that they would not be materially affected were each particular etymology (contrary to present evidence) disproved.

Animal Magnetism; with a brief account of the Life of Mesmer, by a Surgeon.—We are so heartily disgusted with the folly of the public in listening to the disgraceful mummery, dignified with this high-sounding, but false and fraudulent name, that we can only say the "Surgeon" who has thrust himself into the post of umpire, is unfit to maintain that position. With every effort to assume an impartial balance, he is deficient in that logical faculty necessary to discriminate between false and true, in matters of science. His book will only tend to mislead the weak,—not to fortify them in a rational investigation;—if, indeed, it should seem that the subject admits of, or requires any other treatment than the *argumentum ad absurdum*.

View of the Undulatory Theory, by Baden Powell, M.A.—A full introduction (56 pages) of remark on the state of the undulatory theory; an elementary syllabus of mathematical forms; and an application, after the author's own manner, to the theory of dispersion, with comparisons between the theory and experiment. It will, of course, receive the attention to which its author's name entitles it from the few who can read a mathematical work on optics, and we cannot attempt to elucidate its object to others.

The Peerage, Baronetage, and Knightage for 1842, by C. R. Dodd, Esq.—An annual volume, which received our hearty commendation on its first publication—and is not the less entitled to it after the careful revision which it has undergone. Some improvements have also been introduced.

Vacher's Parliamentary Companion for the Session 1842.—Another useful little work. An especial feature in it is the attempt to give correctly the town residences of Members; and, to ensure accuracy, an edition is published monthly.

Villa Rustica—selected from *Buildings and Scenes in the Vicinity of Rome and Florence*, and arranged

for *Lodges and Domestic Dwellings*; with *Plans and Details*, by Charles Parker, F.A.S. In three Books.

—This beautiful work is now complete. The descriptions accompany a series of nearly 100 plans, illustrating the villa architecture of Italy. The style of art here exemplified, is, perhaps, with some modifications, better suited than any other for our present purposes, as, from the simplicity of its forms and details, it can be carried into execution at a moderate cost, and it is well adapted to the arrangements and luxuries required in modern dwellings. The examples selected are generally of great merit, picturesque in outline, varied in composition, and designed with that freedom which results from great art—not from the mere caprice of novelty. These effects are much aided by the inequality of the ground generally chosen for the site of these buildings, and by the admirable manner in which the enclosure walls and the out-houses combine with, and enhance the effect of the main building. The details also deserve careful study, for they are graceful and appropriate, without the affectation of classical or temple architecture. As these examples are not exactly copied, but adapted, we should have been glad if more information had been given respecting the originals—the materials of which they are built—their size; and, from the skill and good taste shown throughout the work, we regret that the author has not extended his description and critical remarks beyond the brief notice accompanying each plate. Among so many good examples it is needless to particularize: but we will direct attention, almost at hazard, to Plates 48 and 72, in the second and third books, for beautiful exterior grouping and composition. Many of the interiors are excellent; Plates No. 73 and 80 particularly, are designed with a severe, but graceful simplicity. Several plates of details are separately given on a larger scale. The Italian tiles form a principal ornament in all. We wish that our architects could introduce this kind of roof—we believe it to be not only the most beautiful, but practically also the most effectual mode of tiling. It is now, perhaps because it is unusual, too costly for common use, but the price would be much reduced, if the demand were greater.

Plan of Medical Reform, without subverting existing Colleges, by Richard Carmichael, M.R.I.A.—We have more than once adverted to the question of medical reform. It is a question rising daily into importance, through the awakening energies of the profession itself, and the proper sense which medical men entertain of what is due to themselves, and just to their employers. The question, we fear, is still "caviare to the general," with whom we know not whether medicine or reform is regarded with the most contempt. Notwithstanding the parliamentary debates on the subject, there are not, probably, ten persons, even in the House of Commons, who are thoroughly acquainted with the matter in dispute; and beyond that circle, it may be doubted whether the most inveterate taker of drugs has given the matter ten minutes thought. Nothing short of the ignorance of the public could have admitted of the growth of such imperfect institutions, as those provided by the English nation for the medical profession; or, having admitted it, could have thrown such impediments in the way of reform. The public, indeed, cares not who practises upon their disordered frames, or what guarantee the pretender to physic does or does not give for his due qualification: nay, the upper classes are the most conspicuous for the employment of notorious quacks, and for the maintenance and support of the grossest impostures. While such ignorance prevails amongst the parties most interested in medical reform, there is small chance for the attainment of even a tolerable adjustment of the conflicting interests involved in the actual condition of the art. We shall not again enter on the details of Mr. Carmichael's proposed amendments, which are clearly set forth in the pamphlet before us. The character of the author entitles his work to attention, and the public and profession are alike indebted to him for the energy and perseverance with which he has laboured in bringing the question to a hearing.

An Investigation of the proposed Scheme of Practical Reform in reference to Chemists and Druggists, by G. Crook.—This pamphlet relates to a portion of Medical Reform, simple enough in theory, but sub-

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rounded by practical difficulties—it embraces the subordinate question of the common right of every man to judge for himself in the matter of advice, and that of the sufficient supply of accessible medical service for the use of the poor, not therein including legal paupers. In the present state of things, the chemist is in all trifling maladies the cheap doctor for the poor. He has not necessarily the slightest medical education, and there is no control over his practice by any written document necessarily entered on his books. The pamphleteer, who is himself avowedly one of the class, cries out violently against the oppressive enactments proposed by the medical reformers for the removal of these evils. He fairly admits, that if the chemist's right to prescribe be legalized, he ought to be qualified for the task by a better education; but, if he gets a better education, he will naturally charge in proportion; and so, ceasing to be the prescriber for the poor, will, in his turn, be superseded (as he has himself superseded the apothecary,) by a new interloper—the grocer. This is a vicious circle, from which reformers find it difficult to escape; and we do not ourselves see our way to any conclusion fully equal to the necessities of the case.

State of Education, Crime, &c., by Joseph Bentley. —There is a large class of busy, bustling, well-meaning people, whom Canning has immortalized in his story of the 'Three Tailors of Tooley Street,' and 'We the People of England.' Mr. Bentley, 'Statist,' as he announces himself, belongs to the class of immortalized tailors. He is, we sincerely believe, a worthy, and, in his humble way, a useful man; but his pompous enunciations of threadbare truisms is not on that account the less ridiculous. We were ourselves at first imposed on by the self-satisfied assumption of the man, and thought that he must be a direct descendant (and, if so, greatly descended, we admit) from 'Richard himself,' the Master of Trinity; but we had not proceeded far, before we got unmistakable glimpses of Tooley Street. The substance of all Mr. Bentley's egotistical garrulity—this Bentley Revelation—might have been comprised in a dozen pages—it is briefly, that education tends to diminish crime; a profound truth, which some of our readers may have heard before; illustrated by certain Statistical facts, the most important of which relate to the city and county of Worcester, and were collected by Mr. Bentley while preparing a 'commercial work of great national importance' [We the People of England], which work we conceive to be the one advertised at the end of the volume before us, and no other than Bentley's 'Directory of the City and County of Worcester,' since published, and to be had in 'smooth calf,' price 11. 5s. With this revelation, Mr. Bentley tells us, his work might have concluded, had he been intent merely on 'fame or gain'; but 'the ends aimed at are of a far higher order than speculative theories, honour or profit,' and therefore he proposes to raise, by subscription, from 5,000 to 12,000, for the purpose of erecting and establishing 'A normal Institution for the training Educators, a House of Refuge for Juvenile Delinquents,' &c. We believe Mr. Bentley to be disinterested in this project, and cannot therefore but regret that the exaggerated importance of the man and of his labours should tend to make the one ridiculous and the other suspected. But, after all, we may not be impartial judges; for Mr. Bentley, it appears, is indignant at the treatment he heretofore received from the *Athenæum*. The grounds of this offence will illustrate all we have said of Mr. Bentley. It appears that in the Report of the proceedings at the Meeting of the British Association in Glasgow, we gave a summary account of a paper read by Mr. Bentley, in which there was an important, but a very obvious error—an error into which the mere flourish of the pen may have misled the printer. Here follows Mr. Bentley's version of the story:—"I immediately wrote to the Editor, &c., and the following correction appeared in very small type at the end of the next number: *Errata*—In the Report of Mr. Bentley's paper (*ante*, p. 803) it is said that 'he entered into a comparison between the town of Dudley and the city of Worcester, from whence he inferred, that education was not demonstrably a restraint on crime'—it should have been 'was demonstrably a restraint on crime.'—Now what did Mr. Bentley desire? The offence must have been in printing, as usual, the erratum in small type at the

end of the paper—it ought, we suppose, as it related to Mr. Bentley, to have been printed in large type and at the beginning of the paper.

List of New Books.—Entick's English-Latin Dictionary, by J. Carey, L.L.D., sq., 4s. 6d. bd.—Karah Kaplan, the Koord Chief, by the Hon. C. Savile, 3 vols. post 8vo. 28s. 6d. bds.—Fielding (T. H.) on the Theory of Painting, new edit. enlarged, royal 8vo. 26s. coloured.—Passages from the Diary of a late Physician, new edit. 2 vols. 12s. cl.—A Ride on a Horseback to Florence, in a Series of Letters, by a Lady, 2 vols. royal 12mo. 18s. cl.—The Life of Sir Samuel Romilly, written by Himself, 2 vols. 12mo. 12s. cl.—Archbold's Justice of the Peace, Vols. I. and II., new edit. 12mo. 11. 18s. bds.—Zanoni, by the Author of 'Night and Morning,' 3 vols. post 8vo. 31s. 6d. bds.—Political Philosophy, 8vo. 12s. cl.—Fascination, and other Tales, edited by Mrs. Gore, 3 vols. post 8vo. 31s. 6d. bds.—The Novels of the late Gerard Griffin, Esq., Vol. I., 'The Collegians,' 6s. 6d. cl.—Philosophy in Sport made Science in Earnest, new edit. greatly improved, 12mo. 8s. cl.—Zaïda, and other poems, by Lewis Evans, 6s. 5s. cl.—O'Neill's Drunkard, a Poem, illustrated by George Cruikshank, 6s. 2s. 6d. cl.—Miniature French Dictionary, royal 32mo. 4s. 4s. 4s. 4s.—The Condition of the Agricultural Classes of Great Britain and Ireland, with a Preface, by H. Drummond, Esq., 2 vols. 8vo. 21s. bds.—Witchell's German Grammar, 12mo. 6s. 6d. cl.—Cape's Mathematics, Vol. II., 8vo. 16s. cl.—Questions and Exercises to Hiley's English Grammar, 12mo. 2s. 6d. cl.—Reeve's System of Conchology, Vol. I., 4to. cl. 5s. 10s. coloured, 3s. 5s. plain.—Popularity, and the Destinies of Women, by Mrs. C. B. Wilson, 2 vols. post 8vo. 21s. bds.—Newstock Priors, a Novel, by Miss Waddington, 3 vols. post 8vo. 31s. 6d. bds.—Prescott's (W. H.) History of the Reign of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, new edit. 3 vols. 8vo. 31s. 6d. cl.—Lumley's (W. G.) Treatise on the Law of Settlement and Removals, 12mo. 4s. 6d. bds.—The Book of Thought, with an Index, post 8vo. 10s. 6d. cl.—History of the Colonization of the United States, by George Bancroft, 9th edit. 3 vols. 8vo. 21. 2s. cl.—Hand-Book of the Game of Billiards, by Colonel H., with 44 diagrams, 18mo. 3s. 6d. cl.—Time and Timekeepers, by Adam Thomson, royal 18mo. 5s. cl.—Memoirs of the Life and Writings of M. T. Sadler, Esq., 8vo. 14s. cl.—Plain View of the Liturgy, by the Rev. H. Marriott, 6s. 4s. 6d. cl.—Jones's (Rev. J.) Lectures on the Acts, 2 vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. cl.—Blunt's (Rev. H.) Exposition of Exodus, 12mo. 6s. cl.—Luther, a Poem, by the Rev. Robert Montgomery, royal 18mo. 10s. 6d. cl.—The Tabernacle in the Wilderness, folio, 10s. 6d. cl.—Strength in Jesus to perform Duty, by the Rev. H. J. Prince, 24mo. 1s. 6d. cl.—Evangelical Sermons, by the Rev. Joseph Bush, 12mo. 4s. 6d. cl.—A Translation and Exposition of the Psalms, by the Rev. John Fry, new edit. 8vo. 16s. 6d. cl.

SOME ACCOUNT OF THE GREEK CHRISTIAN POETS.

THE Greek language was a strong intellectual life, stronger than any similar one which has lived in the breath of "articulately speaking men," and survived it. No other language has lived so long and died so hard,—pang by pang, each with a dolphin colour,—yielding reluctantly to that doom of death and silence which must come at last to the speaker and the speech. Wonderful it is to look back fathoms down the great past, thousands of years away—where whole generations lie unmade to dust—where the sounding of their trumpets, and the rushing of their scythed chariots, and that great shout which brought down the birds stone dead from beside the sun, are more silent than the dog breathing at our feet, or the fly's paces on our window-pane; and yet, from the heart of which silence, to feel words rise up like a smoke—words of men, even words of women, uttered at first, perhaps, in "excellent low voices," but audible and distinct to our times, through "the dreadful pother" of life and death, the hissing of the steam-engine and the cracking of the celerment! It is wonderful to look back and listen. Blind Homer spoke this Greek after blind Demodocus, with a quenchless light about his brows, which he felt through his blindness. Pindar rolled his chariots in it, prolonging the clamour of the games. Sappho's heart beat through it, and heaved up the world's. Æschylus strained it to the stature of his high thoughts. Plato crowned it with his divine peradventures. Aristophanes made it drunk with the wine of his fantastic merriment. The later Platonists wove their souls away in it, out of sight of other souls. The first Christians heard in it God's new revelation, and confessed their Christ in it from the suppliant's knee, and presently from the bishop's throne. To all times, and their transitions, the language lent itself. Through the long summer of above two thousand years, from the grasshopper Homer sang of, to that grasshopper of Manuel Phile, which might indeed have been "a burden," we can in nowise mistake the chirping of the bloodless, deathless, wondrous, creature. It chirps on in Greek still. At the close of that long summer, though Greece lay withered to her root, her academic groves and philosophic gardens all leafless and bare, still from the depth of the desolation rose up the voice—

O cuckoo, shall I call thee bird,
Or but a wandering voice?

which did not grow hoarse, like other cuckoos, but sang not unswetly, if more faintly than before.

Strangely vital was this Greek language—

Some straggling spirits were behind, to be
Laid out with most thrift on its memory.

It seemed as if nature could not part with so lovely a tune, as if she felt it ringing on still in her head—or as if she hummed it to herself, as the watchman used to do, with "night wandering round" him, when he watched wearily on the palace roof or the doomed house of Atreus.

But, although it is impossible to touch with a thought the last estate of Greek poetical literature without the wonder occurring of its being still Greek, still poetry,—though we are startled by the phenomenon of life-like sounds coming up from the ashes of a mighty people—at the aspect of an Alceste returned from the dead, veiled but identical,—we are forced to admit, after the first pause of admiration, that a change has passed upon the great thing we recognize, a change proportionate to the greatness, and involving a caducity. Therefore, in adventuring some imperfect account of the Greek ecclesiastical poets it is right to premise it with the full and frank admission, that they are not accomplished poets,—that they do not, in fact, reach with their highest lifted hand, the lowest foot of those whom the world has honoured as Greek poets, but who have honoured the world more by their poetry. The instrument of the Greek tongue was, at the Christian era, an antique instrument, somewhat worn, somewhat stiff in the playing, somewhat deficient in notes which it had once, somewhat feeble and uncertain in such as it retained. The subtlety of the ancient music, the variety of its cadences, the intersections of sweetness in the rise and fall of melodies, rounded and contained in the unity of its harmony, are as utterly lost to this later period as the digamma was to an earlier one. We must not seek for them; we shall not find them; their place knows them no more. Not only was there a lack in the instrument,—there was also a deficiency in the players. Thrown aside, after the old flute-story, by a goddess, it was taken up by a mortal hand—by the hand of men gifted and noble in their generation, but belonging to it intellectually, even by their gifts and their nobleness. Another immortal, a true genius, might, nay, would, have asserted himself, and wrung a poem of almost the ancient force from the infirm instrument. It is easy to fancy, and to wish that it had been so—that some martyr or bishop, when bishops were martyrs, and the earth was still warm with the Sacrificial blood, had been called to the utterance of his soul's devotion, with the emphasis of a great poet's power. No one, however, was so called. Of all the names which shall presently be reckoned, and of which it is the object of this sketch to give some account, beseeching its readers to hold several in honourable remembrance, not one can be crowned with a steady hand as a true complete poet's name. Such a crown is a sacred dignity, and, as it should not be touched idly, it must not be used here. A born Warwick could find, here, no head for a crown.

Yet we shall reckon names "for remembrance," and speak of things not ignoble—of meek heroic Christians, and heavenward faces washed serene by tears—strong knees bending humbly for the very strength's sake—bright intellects burning often to the winds in fantastic shapes, but oftener still with an honest inward heat, vehement on heart and brain—most eloquent fallible lips that convince us less than they persuade—a divine loquacity of human falsities—poetical souls, that are not souls of poets! Surely not ignoble things! And the reader will perceive at once that the writer's heart is not laid beneath the wheels of a cumbrous ecclesiastical antiquity—that its intent is to love what is lovable, to honour what is honourable, and to kiss both through the dust of centuries, but by no means to recognize a hierarchy, whether in the church or in literature.

If, indeed, an opinion on the former relation might be regarded here, it would be well to suggest, that to these "Fathers," as we call them filially, with heads turned away, we owe more reverence for the greyness of their beards than theologic gratitude for the outstretching of their hands. Devoted and disinterested as many among them were, they, themselves, were at most times evidently and consciously

OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

It is pleasant, in these, the Lenten days for fantasy and poetical contemplation, to be able to announce three forthcoming volumes of poetry:—one by Wordsworth, one by Campbell, and the third by Alfred Tennyson.

Whatever may be the progress of art in this country, it will be little indebted, we fear, to the Gresham Committee; all, indeed, that we can say in favour of the Committee is, that the spirit which suggested the Gresham Medal, is worthy of the judgment which selected the design for the Royal Exchange. We have now before us a medal with the head of Prince Albert, engraved by Alfred J. Stothard, in commemoration of that event—an excellent likeness, and very creditable as a work of art; the reverse is the Western Portico of the Exchange. Do our readers, or do the public, know that this is the only medal engraved expressly in commemoration of that event? The medal called The Gresham Medal, was thus ingeniously manufactured:—The Committee applied to Lord Aberdeen for the loan of the die of a medal, executed by Mr. W. Wyon for the Foreign Office, and which is intended to be given as an honorary reward to foreigners who may be instrumental in saving the lives of shipwrecked British subjects! The obverse of this medal consists of a beautifully executed bust of the Queen. Lord Aberdeen, of course, acceded to the request of the Committee. The Committee having thus obtained the gratuitous use of a fine obverse, it might reasonably be supposed, that they would have attempted something worthy of it as a reverse; on the contrary, they gave only an inscription, and that without ornament or design of any kind, at a cost, we should suppose, under 5*l*. This then, by Mr. Stothard, is the only medal engraved expressly in commemoration of that event—and we recommend it accordingly to all our liberal city friends who take an interest in art.

We learn, from the daily papers, that on Monday last a deputation from the Metropolitan Improvement Society waited on Col. Thomas Wood, Member for Middlesex, to solicit his influence with the present Government in favour of a comprehensive and uniform plan of improvement, embracing the interests of all the metropolitan districts, and free from local bias. Col. Wood acknowledged the interest he felt in the object, but expressed his fear that if Government were urged to prepare such a plan, on a large scale, the expense of realizing it might be deemed an insurmountable difficulty. The deputation then entered into various statements to show that a comprehensive and uniform plan would economize the public resources by saving unnecessary parliamentary expenses, and by preventing money being wasted upon unconnected and injudicious projects. The Society is daily increasing its influence.—Lord Robert Grosvenor, Mr. H. Ormsby Gore, M.P., Mr. J. Ivatt Briscoe, Mr. H. T. Hope, Mr. Charles Barry, Colonel Sykes, Mr. H. Alex. Mackinnon, M.P., Mr. B. Smith, M.P., and Mr. J. C. Loudon, have been added to the General Committee.

It is announced in the *Irish Ecclesiastical Journal*, that it has been resolved, with the approbation of His Grace, the Lord Primate, and the sanction of the Provost and Senior Fellows of Trinity College, to found five Irish Scholarships in the University, in connexion with the Irish Collegiate School. They are designed for such students only as intend to become candidates for Holy Orders, in the Church in Ireland, and are consequently only open to Members of the Church. One scholar will be elected every year. The value of each Scholarship will be, the first year, 24*l*., increasing, year by year, up to 48*l*.

The Emperor of Russia has bestowed the second class of the decoration of Saint Anne on M. de Verneuil, Vice-President of the Geological Society of France, in acknowledgment of his geological researches in Russia. M. Dumont d'Urville has been elected President of the Geological Society of France, for the present year.—the Baron Pasquier and M. Ballanche to fill the vacancies in the French Academy.—and M. Dupuy is appointed to replace M. Alexandre Duval, as one of the Conservators of the Library of the Arsenal.

At a recent sitting of the Academy of the Fine Arts, some details were given, by M. Raoul Rochette, of the results of the excavations making, as we have before mentioned, in the kingdom of the Two Sicilies.

The year 1841 has been principally marked by various discoveries of deposits of medals, for the most part of Greek workmanship. The researches still going on at Pompeii have not been very fruitful in results of interest; but in the Amphitheatre of Puzzuoli, the clearing and examination of which has been ordered by the King himself, important discoveries are looked for. The labours at this point are pursued with great activity, and, judging by the portion already cleared, it is expected that this Amphitheatre, when completely restored to the light of day, will present one of the most perfect and extensive architectural monuments of Italy, and enrich the museums of Naples with many valuable fragments of antiquity.

It appears by the American papers, that Mr. Brodhead, who was some time appointed by the New York Historical Society, agent to consult European archives, in reference to the history of that State, has been very successful in his mission. At the Hague alone he has procured copies of 3,000 pages of manuscript, illustrative of colonial history from 1614 down to 1673. He is preparing to examine the archives of the Dutch West India Company, at Amsterdam.

We cheerfully make room for the following communication:—

Liverpool, February 24, 1842.

Sir,—Amongst other erroneous deductions from my paper to the Geographical Society, detailing Mr. Becroft's voyage up the Quorra, or Niger, in an article which appeared in your impression of last week, the following, I trust, only requires to be made known to you, in order to meet with instant correction. You say, "It is especially worthy of notice, that the chief mortality, and the origin of all the sickness attending Mr. Becroft's voyage is assignable to the month spent by him in exploring the rivers of Benin." Now, I beg to inform you, that during the eleven days (not a month) spent in exploring the river referred to, there was not the slightest sickness on board the *Ethiopia*,—and further, that it was not till the ninth day she had been in the Warree branch of the Niger, that fever appeared amongst the European portion of her people. Mr. Becroft was the first person attacked with it (slightly), and the next was Mr. Moffat, one of his surgeons, who had frequently been in Africa before. It afterwards came upon all the Europeans, without exception; and such is its peculiar character, that not one of them recovered strength sufficient to be capable of any duty or exertion as long as the vessel remained on the river, except the two surgeons, the second mate, and the engineer. I trust you will be satisfied that I state this from no feeling of "commercial jealousy," when I inform you that I left off all traffic on the Niger upon Mr. Becroft's return from his ascent in 1840.

I am, &c., ROBERT JAMIESON.

Our argument was, that the sickness experienced by Mr. Becroft's party furnishes no proof of the impossibility of frequenting the Quorra, since it was contracted not in the Quorra, but in a region which has been actually frequented by Europeans for three centuries. We were perfectly aware that sickness first attacked the officers and men of the *Ethiopia* in the Warree or Brodie River, that is to say, about ten days after leaving the Benin Rivers, and about ten days before entering the Quorra. We stated, at the same time, that Catholic missionaries were already established in Warree, in the middle of the sixteenth century. If we used the name Benin in a wider sense than Mr. Jamieson, we only conformed, in so doing, to the usage of geographers, who apply it to an extensive region. Our reasoning is not vitiated by that inaccuracy: on the contrary, we find our views confirmed, while our nomenclature is corrected. We cheerfully bore testimony, on a former occasion, to the spirit and enterprise of Mr. Jamieson, and advocated the rights of the merchant to the fruits of his own inquiries; and we now freely acquit Mr. Jamieson of jealousy, not, however, without expressing our surprise that he should feel displeased at our attempt to prove that the Quorra may be frequented.

BRITISH INSTITUTION, PALL MALL.

The Gallery for the EXHIBITION and SALE of the Works of BRITISH ARTISTS is open DAILY, from Ten in the Morning till Five in the Evening. Admission, 1*s*. Catalogue, 1*s*.

WILLIAM BARNARD, Keeper.

DIORAMA, REGENT'S PARK.

THE Pictures will represent THE VILLAGE OF ALAGNA, in Piedmont, destroyed by an Avalanche, painted by M. BOUTON; and THE SHRINE OF THE NATIVITY, at Bethlehem, painted by M. RENOUX.

ROYAL POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTION.

NEW and VARIED LECTURES daily, with beautiful Illustrations.—NEW DISSOLVING VIEWS.—BARWISE and BAIN'S ELECTRO-MAGNETIC CLOCKS.—WRIGHT and BAIN'S New Patent ELECTRO-MAGNETIC RAILWAY TRAIN CONTROLLER.—THE MICROSCOPE, DIVING BELL, and DIVER, ORBERY, re-including 2,000 works of eminent art, science, and ingenuity.—A VIEW OF CANTON by a Chinese Artist.—THE MODEL of the UNDERCLIFF, ISLE OF WIGHT, and various COSMORAMIC VIEWS are added in the Evening Exhibitions. Admission, 1*s*.

SCIENTIFIC AND LITERARY

GEOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

Feb. 23.—Mr. Murchison, President, in the chair.

A paper was read by Prof. Owen, "On the Mammoth Remains exhibiting at the Egyptian Hall;" and, as these fossils, particularly the great skeleton, are objects of considerable public curiosity, we deviate from our usual course of noticing the subjects in the order in which they are brought before the meetings of the Society, and proceed at once to give an abstract of Prof. Owen's paper.—After alluding to the manner in which the skeleton is put together, the author enters upon the important question, what is the species of animal to which it is to be referred? It is, he says, a mammiferous animal, and the bones of the anterior extremities prove it to be a member of the great primary group of ungulata, while the enormous tusks of the upper jaw, show that it belonged to the Proboscidean group of Pachyderms, and the molar teeth, that it was identical with the Tetracaulodon, or *Mastodon giganteum*. With respect to the position of the tusks, Prof. Owen explained, that in consequence of the mode of insertion in the sockets, the tusks of the Mastodon, like those of the elephant, can be turned in any direction when the natural attachments are destroyed by decomposition; and that consequently superincumbent pressure may have bent the tusks of the specimen in Mr. Koch's Museum, into their present position. The author next considers the relation which the Tetracaulodon and Mastodon bear to each other, and whether they ought to be regarded as distinct genera, but he first alludes to the researches of those anatomists who have preceded him in the inquiry. Dr. Godman, of Philadelphia, founded the former genus upon a fossil lower jaw, which contained molar teeth agreeing with those of the Mastodon, but which possessed two tusks projecting from the symphyseal extremity. Mr. W. Cooper, of New York, suggested that the Tetracaulodon was the young of the *Mastodon giganteum*, and that the tusks were merely milk teeth, which were lost as the animal became adult. This latter opinion advocated by some zoologists, but not illustrated by analogies, was opposed by Dr. Hays, who, in an elaborate memoir, adduced what he considered sufficient evidence to prove that Dr. Godman had not committed the error of describing as a new animal, the young of a known species; and he adds, with reference to the suggestion of Mr. Titian R. Peale, that the tusks in the lower jaw might be only a sexual distinction, that the then existing state of knowledge was not sufficient either to confirm or refute the suggestion. An attentive examination of several lower jaws in Mr. Koch's collection, containing molar teeth of *Mastodon giganteum*, have enabled Prof. Owen to establish the important fact, that an animal of the same size and molar dentition as the Mastodon, was characterized in the adult state, by a single tusk or incisor projecting from the symphyseal extremity of the right ramus of the lower jaw, and that the assumed peculiarity of the Tetracaulodon, namely, the two inferior tusks, one in each ramus, is manifested only by immature animals. There are also in the collection, several lower jaws without any trace of tusks, and agreeing therefore with the old character of the genus Mastodon. In all those specimens, the molar teeth present the forms and proportions which distinguish the *Mastodon giganteum*. Prof. Owen then details the series of comparisons by which he has arrived at the conclusion, that the Tetracaulodon of Dr. Godman, is the immature state of both sexes of the *Mastodon giganteum*, and that it loses those distinctions in the mature state of both sexes, by the loss of one tusk in the male, and by the loss of both in the female. These conclusions are founded on careful measurements, which establish a close similarity in size and proportion between lower jaws with and without incisor teeth; in the perfect agreement of the conformation of the molar teeth; in the general form of the ascending ramus and the symphysis, and in the place and size of the great foramina for the dental nerves and vessels, being alike in all instances. Prof. Owen then dwells at some length upon the nature of the lower tusks or incisors, which induced Dr. Godman to found the genus Tetracaulodon, and he shows, that if they should be taken as generic characters, a third genus would be required for those jaws in which only one tusk occurs. But

with regard to these incisor teeth, the author says, it must be remembered that in many species both of Cetacea and Pachyderms, incisors as well as canines are subject to very great variety in relation to the age and sex of the same species of animal. In the male Dugong, the upper incisors are protruded, scalpriform and of unlimited growth, while in the female, they are concealed, cuspidate and solid at their base, which is expanded. In both sexes the lower jaw is provided at its deflected extremity with six incisors, which disappear in the mature animals, one or two abortive remnants at most being occasionally discovered hidden in the irregular cancellous sockets. In many species of the hog tribe, the incisors which are present in the young animal, are lost in the full grown; but the most remarkable example of the relation of very distinct conditions of incisor teeth or tusks, to age and sex, is that of the Narwhal. The young of both sexes have a single incisor equally developed on each side of the upper jaw, one of which grows rapidly in the male, constituting the well known spirally twisted tusk, while the other remains stationary, and both continue rudimental in the female. "If," says Prof. Owen, "it be supposed for a moment that the Dugong and Narwhal were extinct, and could be judged of only by their fossil remains, the skulls of the two sexes of the herbivorous Cetacean, viewed irrelatively, would doubtless be referred to two distinct species, the identity of the molar teeth perhaps impressing the more cautious palaeontologist with a strong suspicion of their generic identity; but," he continues, "the cranium of the male Narwhal, with its unsymmetrical distortion, increased by an enormous tusk, would, it can scarcely be doubted, have been referred to a genus of Cetaceans, quite distinct from that to which the edentulous, and more symmetrical skull of the female Narwhal would be considered to represent." Prof. Owen next shows, that in the so-called Tetracaulodon and in the Mastodon, the mode and order of succession of the molar teeth correspond. Moreover, the lower jaws of both present those characters by which the *Mastodon giganteum* is distinguished from the genus Elephas, and Prof. Owen observes, "when we reflect on the striking modifications by which the lower jaw of the elephant differs from that of the mastodon, it cannot be supposed, that no corresponding variation should be present in the lower jaws of the mastodon, and of another genus of Proboscidiæ, characterized by a difference in the number of the teeth. I know of no analogy in the whole mammalian series, which would justify such a belief. Tetracaulodons appear, from Mr. Koch's collection, to be as numerous as mastodons, yet as little do we perceive or hear of two forms of humeri, ulnae, radii, femora, or tibiae, as of lower jaws; while the femora of the *Elephas primigenius* associated with them, are at once recognizable by modifications, which might be expected to accompany true generic differences in the rest of the organization." With the exception, therefore, of a few bones of the mammoth, Prof. Owen refers all the other remains of Proboscidiæ Pachyderms in Mr. Koch's important collection, to the *Mastodon giganteum* of Cuvier; and they illustrate, he says, the true and very remarkable characters of that extinct animal in a more complete manner than has ever before been done, and clear up the doubts which the inspection of solitary specimens had occasioned. The height of the skeleton, taken at the withers or dorsal spines, provided the collocation of the bones were correctly observed, Prof. Owen estimates at ten feet, and the length from the intermaxillary bones to the end of the sacrum at sixteen feet, or four feet more than that of the large Asiatic elephant in the Hunterian Museum. Mr. Owen then enters upon the question connected with the probable use of the lower incisors; and he states, that if they were to be regarded as generic distinctions constantly associated in both sexes with the enormous upper tusks, no explanation could be given of so apparently useless an appendage; but if considered as the distinctive character previously mentioned in the memoir, there are abundant examples in the animal kingdom, of the functional importance of external distinctions. With respect to another question, why two tusks should be originally developed, and especially in the female, in which neither is to be retained, he says, there is an equal difficulty with respect to the two rudimental tusks in the female Narwhal,

and of the single one in the male—to the abortive incisors in the symphyseal part of the lower jaw in the Dugong, and to the rudimental teeth in the lower jaw of the fetal whalebone whale, as well as in the upper jaw of the sperm whale. In these and many analogous instances, a structure may be perceived which, only sketched out and functionless in one species, is perfected and performs important uses in a closely allied species. Thus, the teeth which are shadowed forth in the lower jaw of the fetal whale, are fully developed in the cachalot—the upper rudimentary maxillary teeth, which remain hidden in the gum of the sperm whale, are functionally developed in the more formidable grampus; and in pursuing the same argument as applied to Pachyderms, he states, that the gigantic Dinotherium, discovered by Dr. Kaup, exhibits the full and functional development of the inferior tusks, which in the mastodon are exhibited only in their rudimental state. Mr. Owen likewise dwells on the beautiful transitional modifications in the molar teeth of the elephant, the elephantoid mastodon of Ava, the mastodon of the Missouri, the dinotherium and the tapir; and he adds, that the singular armature of the lower jaw of the dinotherium might be expected to be most clearly discernible in the species of mastodon, which most nearly approaches the dinotherium, in the form of the grinding teeth. In conclusion, Prof. Owen states, that since he arrived at the inferences set forth in this paper, he has perused a recently published account of Mr. Koch's collection, by Dr. Hays, in which that naturalist maintains the generic distinctness of the tetracaulodon. Mr. Owen, however, after a careful consideration of the arguments advanced by Dr. Hays, feels only more strongly assured, that the tetracaulodon and mastodon are one animal. The other extinct mammalia, the remains of which are exhibited in Mr. Koch's collection, are referred by Mr. Owen to the Lophiodon (the supposed human skeleton), the Mylodon (called Orycterotherium), and to a large species of Ruminantia.

STATISTICAL SOCIETY.

Feb. 21.—Viscount Sandon, President, in the chair.—A paper was read by H. Ashworth, Esq., on the statistics of the present depression of trade at Bolton, showing the mode in which it affects the different classes of a manufacturing population.

Four-fifths of the capital of the spinner or manufacturer is expended in buildings, machinery, &c. he therefore cannot close his establishment without incurring heavy losses; even to diminish his production by working short time, is attended with heavy sacrifices. On this point, the Directors of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce caused the following estimate to be prepared, for the accuracy of which the author of the paper vouches.

Capital invested in land, buildings, and works, £20,000, at 5 per cent. per ann.	1,000
For repairs and dilapidations, 2½ per cent.	500
Capital invested in machinery, 20,000, at 5 per cent. per ann.	1,000
For deterioration by wear and tear, and for renewal when worked out, 7½ per cent. per ann.	1,500
Capital 12,000, for carrying on trade, stock, and cotton, at 3 per cent.	360
Insurance upon fixed property, £5,000	
Machinery	18,000
Stock of cotton and yarn, 7,000	
	40,000 at 14 per cent. 280
Annual duty on Insurance 3s.	60
Taxes, poor-rates, &c.	220
Manager's salary	200
Overlooker	75
Engineer and assistant	137
Watchman	52
Salesman	200
Book-keeper and Porter	170
Horses, Carts, and Carters	300
School-room and Schoolmaster	40
	£6,334

or 12½ 16s. a week.

A mill containing 52,000 spindles, will produce 12,000 lb. of yarn, the production of which will cost as follows:

Fixed weekly outlay, as by preceding estimate	121 16
440 workpeople, at an average of 10s. per wk. £320	
Coals for power, &c.	16
Weekly contingencies	56
	292 0
	£413 16

The cost, therefore, in fixed capital, labour, and contingencies, of a mill producing 12,000 lb. of yarn, is equal to 8½d. per lb.; but when times of

pressure arise, and the proprietor is compelled to work his mill only three days per week, the cost of production will be as follows:

Half the customary wages	£110 0
Coals	8 0
Contingencies	30 0
Weekly fixed expenses	121 16
Total	£269 16

Producing 6,000 lb. of yarn, which will cost 10½d. per lb., causing a difference of 2½d. in the cost of production, which is equal to a loss of 60½ 18s. per week, or 3,167½ 8s. per year. To those who will duly weigh the above calculations, made by practical men, it will no longer be difficult to understand why an undiminished, or even increased, production goes on contemporaneously with losing prices. The manufacturer and spinner have only a choice of evils, and they choose the least. If the loss upon a full production be found by calculation to be less than that incurred by working short time, they prefer the smaller sacrifice; and it appears from the Report of the Directors that it is their full conviction that a great proportion of the establishments in the district under consideration, have been carried on at a loss during the past years. To the operatives who have thus been fully employed, the peculiar exigencies of the capitalists have so far been favourable, but it is an advantage which, should the present state of things continue, they cannot long enjoy. As it usually happens that the principal amount of suffering falls upon the working classes, the author gives the results of an examination which was instituted into the state of the unemployed operatives in the annexed trades, showing the loss per week to the town of Bolton.

Mills, 5,000 factory workers, either unemployed or working half time, receiving half wages of 10s. per week	1,250
Iron-founders, 2,110 hands, of whom only 1,325 are employed	1,400
150 Carpenters, only 25 now employed	150
120 Bricklayers, only 16 now employed	125
500 Masons, only 16 now employed	105
150 Tailors, only 250 now employed	250
80 Shoemakers, only 40 now employed	20
Total loss	£3,300

To which may be added, for trades not estimated .. 600
Making a total annual loss of 201,000, upon wages alone.

Should a comparison be drawn between the comfort of these classes in the year 1835, when they had full work, and wheat was 39s. 4d. per quarter, it will be necessary to add the increased cost of their food, and, taking workhouse allowance, or 2s. 6d. per head per week, on the whole population of 50,000 persons, or 10d. per head, the loss upon food, will be 118,900, thus showing a reduction in their circumstances equal to 1,000l. a day for every working day, a sum far beyond the means of charity to alleviate. Indeed, were the poor-rates to be increased to 6,000l., they would be deemed burthensome, though the amount is only the loss of a single week. Mr. Ashworth states that the people make all sorts of shifts to live, by pledging and selling their furniture and clothes. Their food is deficient, their physical strength greatly reduced, and the rate of mortality is rapidly increasing. Of the prevalence of destitution some estimate may be formed from the following statements, which are the result of an examination into the distress at Bolton, made under the direction of a committee of the inhabitants. 1,003 families were visited, consisting of 5,305 persons.

Their net earnings per week were	£ 329 15 7
Parish relief or donations	52 8 5
Amount of weekly rent	392 4 0
Left for food, clothing, &c.	310 0 8
Making 1s. 2d. per head weekly.	

950 families had beds, 53 do. without beds, and 425 persons were sleeping on the floor. 466 blankets were found, being above 10 persons to each blanket. In articles of furniture, 2,876 chairs, 1,380 tables, and 612 stools, were found among the whole, and 609 families had no change of linen. The average wages were only 11½d. per head, and the following was the general way in which the earnings were spent by a family consisting of a man and wife and four children:

Bread and Flour	1 9
Oatmeal	1 0
Potatoes	0 10
Milk	0 11
Bacon	0 2
Soap and Candles	0 4
Coals	0 6
	5 6

Although whole populations, yet her of persons descending question how carry on the pension of pledging furniture, a titution. Abstract in the Com Company n to the end dcluded in the ham, and an Even of the committee available re will appear lowing state sources in nitide, and so as to re average. in the abo injured, 2 children. part of the by being conclusion in the maj coal-miner ployment the want

Feb. 19

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Although Mr. Ashworth does not represent the whole population as enduring these distressing privations, yet he conceives that there are a large number of persons who are just above, although fast descending into that state; and that it is becoming a question how long the employers can continue to carry on their business under this pressure. A suspension of work is immediately followed by the pledging and selling of workpeople's clothing and furniture, and their rapid progress to a state of destitution.

Abstract from a Register of Accidents, occurring in the Coal Mines of the Chamber and Wemith Company at Oldham, from the end of October 1840, to the end of October 1841. The sixteen coal-pits included in the register, are situated in the vicinity of Oldham, and are happily free from the inflammable gases. Even of these worst disasters, the House of Commons committee on accidents in mines in 1835, found no available record, the importance of supplying which will appear no less manifest after glancing at the following statement of casualties arising from other sources in a district exempt from evils of this magnitude, and in mines worked on the most liberal scale, so as to reduce the danger of accident far below the average. Out of 544 persons, of all ages, employed in the above-mentioned pits, 50 were more or less injured, 23 being adults, 19 young persons, and 8 children. The injuries were occasioned by the upper part of the tunnels falling in, and in some instances by being wound over the pulley. It was stated in conclusion that the accidents at the Wernerth Collieries, are far below the average of those which occur in the majority of pits. It was mentioned, that an aged coal-miner is never seen, and that few follow the employment after attaining the age of 50, probably from the want of physical strength to undergo the fatigue,

ASIATIC SOCIETY.

Feb. 19.—The Right Hon. the Earl of Munster in the chair. W. E. Frere, Esq. was elected a member.

A paper, by Lieut. Newbold, 'On the Copper Districts of the Southern Mahratta Country and Nellore,' was read. It was understood that this paper was the first of a series preparing by that gentleman on the Mineral Resources of the Peninsula, from which he has brought an interesting collection of ores and other minerals, selected during a residence in the country, to which he is shortly about to return.

The origin of the extensive, but now almost neglected, Copper Mines of the Peninsula, appears to be lost in vague traditions. They are said to have been worked under the Vijaya-Nagar Dynasty, within whose empire they were situated, and by the Mogul Conquerors, who supplanted it; but we have no further evidence of the processes followed, or of the produce obtained than can be gathered from the magnitude of the excavations, and the immense mounds of slag and scoria, now covered with vegetation, which point out the situation of the smelting furnaces. We may infer that, however rude they might have been, the native processes were effectual in separating the metal from its ore, as few traces of copper remain. About forty-seven years ago the copper mines of Nellore were brought to the notice of the British Government by Dr. Heyne; but no result appears to have followed. A speculation entered into about eight years ago, failed for want of capital, and some mismanagement. Somewhat about two years ago, they were again taken in hand by J. Ouchterlony, Esq., who has established a skillful Cornish miner on the spot. The country in which these mines are situated is an undulating plain, extending from the foot of the Ghauts to the Bay of Bengal, and studded with a few detached, round-backed hills of gneiss, mica, and hornblende schist, rarely a height of more than 250 feet above the adjacent country. Much of it is barren and neglected; and large tracts are almost without a blade of grass. Hardy mimosaes are the only vegetable objects in many extensive tracts, and everywhere the vegetation is stunted. The rocks comprise mica, gneiss, and hornblende schists, highly garnetiferous. Granite is rarely visible, except in veins traversing these rocks, but basaltic dykes are very numerous. Much of the paper was taken up with details of particular mines, which will not admit of abridgment. Analysis of some of the ores have

been made in England by Dr. Thompson, and in India by the lamented Prinsep. The latter gentleman found the ore submitted to him to be composed of sulphuret and carbonate; and to contain sixty-nine per cent. of pure metal. The green carbonate associated with quartz, gave above thirty per cent.; and other specimens contained quantities varying from forty to fifty per cent. It would appear that there are great facilities for the successful working of many of these mines. The population of the country is very industrious. The natives of the district about Garumany, or Garipenta, which may be called the capital of the mining district, are of the *Uper* caste, whose business is well or tank digging. The coconut trees, near the coast, furnish abundance of coir for ropes; and charcoal is sold at the small cost of three maunds for one anna; (if the Madras maund is meant, this will be about forty pounds for a penny). Ramapatnam, on the coast, less than forty miles distant, offers an eligible port for shipping the produce; and it has been suggested, that the river which runs by Garumany penta, might be made navigable, though this is doubted by Lieut. Newbold. On the whole, it may be considered that these districts afford a fair prospect of giving employment to a large proportion of the population of the country, and of contributing to the resources of Great Britain.

At the conclusion of the paper, it was remarked by Colonel Sykes, that India afforded a rich, unexplored field for such researches as had been so ably conducted by Captain Newbold. It was known that gold existed in the streams of the Neigherries, and in the Dheyra doon; but he was not aware of any steps having been taken to trace up the auriferous streams to their sources. He observed also, as an instance of how little had been formerly known of our resources in India, that fifty-seven locations were now ascertained to produce coal, where, but a few years ago, the existence of that mineral was wholly unknown.

INSTITUTION OF CIVIL ENGINEERS.—Feb. 22.

The proceedings of the evening commenced with a discussion upon some portions of Mr. Wilkinson's paper on 'Copper Sheathing,' which was read at the meeting on the 15th inst. A member remarked, that his attention had been drawn to protection afforded to timber by coal tar when properly prepared and applied; the experiment had been tried carefully on board an India ship—some portions being coated with vegetable tar, and others with coal tar; the latter had preserved the timber from the worm during a long voyage, while in many places the former had failed. He attributed the superior qualities of the coal tar to its containing a quantity of sulpho-cyanic or sulphopropionic acid, which inevitably destroyed animal or vegetable life. A Member had observed, at New York, that piles prepared by kyanizing had been destroyed in the same situations, where timber, which had been saturated with coal oil, had resisted the attacks of the Terebo. The statement of the last speaker was confirmed by a Member, who stated, that in the Mediterranean, where the ravages of the worm were most extensive, the vessels being rarely coppered, were entirely protected by prepared coal tar. The coal tar must, however, be deprived of the ammonia, as that substance produced immediate decay in timber: ammonia might be advantageously used for manure in peaty soil, as it destroyed the vegetable fibre with great rapidity, and produced rich soil.

—A paper on 'Holborn Hill, and the Plans for its Improvement,' by Mr. Turner, was then read.—The author, after describing the locality and the amount of traffic, and showing the necessity for improvement, demonstrating it by the accidents which occur, entered fully upon the various plans proposed for viaducts, &c. by Messrs. Taylor, Moseley, Burnard, Genry, Pocock, Galloway, Davey, Whishaw, Ross, and Turner. A comparative table was given of the acclivities of the principal thoroughfares in London, from whence it appeared, that at present the steepest part of Holborn Hill was at an angle of 1 in 16½, and that by the least comprehensive plan, it was proposed to reduce it to 1 in 35, which is less than the acclivity opposite Northumberland House, at Charing Cross. An animated discussion ensued, in which the merits of the various plans were critically examined. The paper was illustrated by drawings and by models of Mr. Galloway's and the author's plans.

HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY.—Feb. 15.—W. H. Peps, Esq. in the chair. Mrs. Lawrence exhibited a fine specimen of *Denbrolium nobile*, bearing a profusion of beautiful flowers, much more highly coloured than usual; to which a Knightian medal was awarded. A certificate was awarded to Mr. Edmonds, gardener to the Duke of Devonshire, for a specimen of *Miltonia Russelliana*, with several fine spikes of flowers, which, however, probably from their being produced at this season, were not properly expanded. From Mr. Bisset, gardener to T. Williams, Esq., were three Enville Pine Apples, weighing respectively 3 lb. 12 oz., 3 lb. 7 oz., and 3 lb. 1 oz.; a certificate was awarded for them. From C. B. Warner, Esq., there was a 'Portable Horticultural Water Engine.' The peculiarities of this instrument are a portable telescope branch, by which plants in an elevated position may be watered without difficulty, and a valve by which the stream of water can be instantly shut off. Among the plants from the garden was *Odontoglossum pulchellum*, with a spike of lovely white flowers as fragrant as violets; this kind succeeds perfectly in a house where the temperature is moderate. The cut flowers were two varieties of *Chimonanthus*, and *Genesia longifolia*, a kind newly imported from Guatemala, which grows perfectly well if treated like a Gloxinia.

LINNEAN SOCIETY.—Feb. 15.—R. Brown, Esq., in the chair. This being the evening appointed for the election of a librarian in the room of the late Prof. Don, the interest evinced on the occasion was attested by an unusually large attendance of Fellows. There were two candidates for the vacant office—Dr. Lemann, M.D., Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, and a Fellow of the Society, and Mr. Kippist, the assistant. Messrs. Benthall and Yarell were appointed scrutineers. At 9 o'clock the poll was closed, and the President announced that the numbers were—for Mr. Kippist, 87; for Dr. Lemann, 69.

SOCIETY OF ARTS.—Feb. 23.—B. Bond Cabbell, Esq., V.P. in the chair.—The report of a select committee was agreed to, recommending certain alterations in the rules for the purpose of extending the usefulness of the society, by admitting a class of inventions hitherto excluded. Communications on all subjects connected with the Arts and Manufactures, including patent inventions, will now be received and read at the weekly meetings. The reading of each paper will be followed by a discussion, for the purpose of eliciting from the experience of those who are practically engaged in the Arts and Manufactures, such information as may give the subject a sufficient degree of completeness to make it serve as a guide for the public, as to the real value of the invention. With the same object in view, specimens of all kinds of British and Foreign Manufactures will be laid out on the table.

ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY.—Jan. 3.—W. W. Saunders, Esq. F.L.S., President, in the chair.—A collection of insects from the Island of Chusan and adjacent parts, was presented to the Society by Dr. Cantor. The following memoirs were read:—1. On 'Aporocera,' a new genus of Australian Chrysomelidae, by the President. 2. Some account of the habits of a fossorial Hymenopterous Insect, from Port Lincoln, Australia, by J. O. Westwood. Mr. G. Newport read a series of extracts from letters received from a friend near Sandwich, who had succeeded, after an experiment of eleven months' duration, in obtaining living specimens of *Acarus Crossii*, from a mineral solution acted upon by voltaic currents, in the same manner as Mr. Crosse had obtained his specimens. The details of the experiments were given. Mr. J. E. Gray, who was present as a visitor, stated, that Mr. Children had made experiments precisely similar to those of Mr. Crosse, and which he had continued for several months, without having been able to obtain a single specimen.

Jan. 24.—This was the anniversary meeting, at which the Council and officers for the ensuing year were elected, the treasurer's accounts laid before the Society, and the annual address delivered by W. W. Saunders, Esq. who was re-elected President.

Feb. 7.—The President, in the chair.—Numerous donations, &c. were announced. Mr. Westwood exhibited two new and beautiful Noctuidae from Cumberland, collected by Mr. J. Reeves, jun. The memoirs

read were: 1. On some new genera of Australian Chrysomelidae, by the President. 2. Descriptions of some new and beautiful Coleoptera, from the Philippine Islands, by G. R. Waterhouse, Esq. 3. Description of a new British genus of Apterous Insects, by J. O. Westwood. 4. A series of notes on the Insects of Chusan, by Dr. Cantor, attached to the Chinese expedition.

MICROSCOPICAL SOCIETY.—Feb. 16.—Prof. Lindley, President, in the chair. A paper was read, by H. H. White, Esq., of Clapham, on Fossil Xanthidia. After stating that these infusoria, which are of a yellow colour, and found imbedded in the substance of chalk flints, formed a genus of the tenth family of the class Polygastrica, called Bacillaria, the author then proceeded to describe twelve species, which were distinguished from each other principally by the number and form of their tentacula, which project from the external investment or lorica of the animal. Each species was separately described; and the author concluded with some observations on the mode in which they became silicified, and on the formation of flints generally. The paper was accompanied with specimens and illustrative diagrams.

ELECTRICAL SOCIETY.—*Feb. 15.*—The papers read were, 1st, 'On the Electrical Relation between Plants and Vapour.' By Mr. Pine.—After adducing further experiments in illustration of the superiority of vegetable over metallic points in drawing off electricity, evidence is given of the operation of the same principle in nature; and it is shown that quiet fogs are *electrical* and *lasting*, because they do not move from place to place, and pass among the conducting points of living vegetation; and that moving fogs are *unelectrical* and *transient*, because in their transit from place to place, the vegetable points draw off their electricity, and at the same time effect their condensation. 2nd, 'Further Observations on Electrotype Manipulation—Depositing on Plumbago—'Electro-lac.' By Mr. C. O. Walker.—To obviate the inconveniences often resulting from the tardy spread of the copper, especially over large plumbagoed surfaces, one or more fine wires are twisted round the main connecting wire, and are made to touch here and where the deposits has not taken place. Specimens of "electro-lac" were exhibited. They are produced by depositing copper on the prepared surface of ordinary lac or net; and the result is a fabric, apparently of delicate metallic lace. This may be plated or gilded; and is applicable for ornamental work. The specimens in question were produced to supply the place of wire gauze, by an experimentalist in Cornwall (Mr. Phillips), who was unable to obtain the material for the construction of a gauze battery. 3rd, 'Nitrate of Soda compared with other salts employed for Constant Batteries.' By Mr. Mackrell.—The author is of opinion that nitrate of soda is the best for constant batteries.

MEETINGS FOR THE ENSUING WEEK

- SAT.** Westminster Medical Society, 8 o'clock, P.M.
— Botanic Society, 4.
MON. Geographical Society, $\frac{1}{2}$ p. 8.
— Institute of British Architects, 8.
— Royal Academy—Sculpture.
TUES. Horticultural Society, 3.
— Institution of Civil Engineers, 8.—'Description of the Tanks for Kyanizing the Timber Sleepers for the permanent way of the Hull and Selby Railway,' by J. Timperley.—'Description of the Permanent Way of the South Eastern Railway,' by J. Pope.—The Ballot for members will take place at $\frac{1}{2}$ p. 9.
— Linnean Society, 8.
— Chemical Society, 8.
WED. Society of Arts, 8.
— College of Physicians, 8.—Materia Medica.
THU. Royal Society, $\frac{1}{2}$ p. 8.
— Zoological Society, 3.—General Business.
— Society of Antiquaries, 8.
— Royal Academy—Painting.
FRI. Royal Institution, $\frac{1}{2}$ p. 8.—'On Fresco Paintings,' by Mr. Haydon.
— Botanical Society, 8.
— College of Physicians, 8.—Materia Medica.

FINE ARTS

BRITISH INSTITUTION.

[Second Notice.]

WE see no reason, after three successive visits to the British Gallery, to alter the opinion we expressed last week as to its general contents: we remain in the same mind, that it is a very poor exhibition. We wish it to be believed, that we are not absolutely

deficient in those virtues most necessary to a Christian and a critic—Faith, Hope, and Charity. We entirely agree with that critic that “a drachm of sweet outweighs a pound of sour:” that the presence of ten, or five, good pictures, or even one picture of a high class in the highest department of art, should obtain toleration, if not salvation, for a whole gallery-full of common-place perpetrations;—but, we repeat, that there is no such picture here; that our most distinguished painters are either absent, or have sent in performances which they would be indignant and desperate to find regarded as the test of their abilities; that the few good pictures belong to the inferior classes of art, and that the bad ones are pitifully bad. It would be very easy to justify what we have said, severe as it may sound; it would be as easy as it would be useless, invidious, and, in some cases, cruel, to pounce on a score or two of these delinquents, and pull them to pieces, and hold them up to ridicule, for the amusement of those whose enjoyment of a satirical jest, at others’ expense, is just in proportion to their want of taste and perception for all that is good and beautiful. It were easy to point out in *this* picture the efforts of hopeless imbecility; in *that* the presumption of self-complacent ignorance; in *this*, the weak, tasteless drawing; in a fourth, the unreddeemable common-place of the conception; *here* the desperate abuse of undeniable talent; *there* the fatal error of mistaking the true bent of the genius. We see one painter of consummate ability in ornamental art, setting himself to imitate humanity most abominably; we see another, whose representations of familiar life and character have been touched with a poetry of conception and depth of feeling not unworthy of Dickens, now grappling with the sublimest themes of Scripture History in the coarse spirit of the Dutch school, but with no Dutch excellence of workmanship to make amends for the vulgar mistake: and, farther, we might refer to a painter of name and fame, who has thought well, spoken well, written well, on art, and who, betrayed by intemperate self-love into the maddest disregard of all propriety of taste and conception, has given us here a picture of such extreme badness, that all serious criticism would be the bitterest mockery: but we have no wish to enter for the malicious amusement of the public; we prefer directing its attention to what is good, rather than indulging in merriment at the expense of what is bad. In this better spirit we resume our remarks.

It is well known that portraits, under that designation, are not admitted into the British Institution; but, as usual, there are here a great number of pictures which ought properly to be classed as portraits, though disguised under some fanciful or far-fetched title, which shall make reality pass as fiction. Thus Rowthwell's picture, already mentioned (217), is called *An Extract from Nature*, rather too affected a title for a very real bit of very beautiful nature itself. Thus George Hayter's *Mary Magdalen* (72) is nothing more than a fair young lady casting up her eyes and letting down her blond tresses; clever, but mannered, and the colouring of the flesh muddy, and lifeless, and bloodless. Thus Mrs. Carpenter has given us what she calls *The Fairy Tale*, i. e. two charming heads of children, evidently from the life, one reading, the other listening, painted with a transparent delicacy of tone, and power and precision of touch, which are quite refreshing. Thus the half figure of an undressed young lady, painted with great care and pains, but heavy and lifeless in colour, is entitled *Aspiration* (233): the painter, Gambardella, is a young Italian exile, of whose *aspirations* this picture would lead us to judge favourably. Etty has a portrait which he calls *The Little Brunette*; somewhat too dark, but full of expression, and vigorous, like all he does. Theodore von Holst's picture, *The Bride*, which we mentioned last week, with deserved praise, comes under the same category; and Inskip's *Zingarella* (344), is, like all his heads that we have seen, clever, spirited, powerful, but coarse and overloaded, as though he had flung on his colour with a ladle, and smoothed it with his palette-knife. Yes, it is true that Rembrandt often did the same, and heaped on his whites and yellows till they stood up in ridges, but then they were dazzling; the light shone upon them, and through them; they were not like lumps of putty glazed over. Let Mr. Inskip look to this.

From amid the herd of painters in the familiar and fanciful style, two young artists have lately

stepped forward into deserved notice,—both destined, we think, to take a high rank in their respective styles, which are as different as those of Jan Steen and Teniers.—C. W. Cope and F. Goodall; of the progress of the first we cannot well judge, as his only picture here is the same exhibited at the Royal Academy last year.—*The Board of Guardians and the Widow's application for Bread* (288), which, for the quiet humour and pathos in the characters, and felicitous composition and careful execution of the details, deserved all the praise it met with—and something more: we are surprised to find it unsold. Goodall bids fair to be our English Teniers, if he goes on as he has begun, and does not mistake his talent through some false ambition. His best picture here,—*The Fair at Fougères in Brittany* (17) is full of lively character, and contains a number of figures, painted with extreme care and delicacy: a little more sharpness and brilliancy in the pencilling would be an improvement, not merely because his great prototype was famous for this particular excellence, but because it is an excellence proper to this particular class of subjects, in which a spiritual elegance of execution imparts force to the expression of character, importance to minuteness of form, and grace to plebeian life, until a boor drinking out of a jug appears, and really is, a very miracle of art.

Herbert's pictures here (79, 80, 436), have a certain artificial and conventional air, as though they had been painted to illustrate some story in a fashionable Annual. This artist seems capable of conceiving better things than he has executed, and of executing better things than he has conceived; he has reached a point which is very unsatisfactory, inasmuch as he indicates more talent than he seems to have taste to direct. We shall look with some curiosity and interest to the next picture he exhibits.

The two pretty little pictures by Callcott Horsley, and T. Webster—*The Pedlar* (3), and *The Wanderer* (2), were both in the Academy last year, and deserve high praise, both for feeling and execution.

We come now to the landscapes. Lee, who stands unrivalled as a painter of genuine English home scenes, and could, like Wynants, make a picture out of a sandbank and a thistle,—Lee is not here; but, by Crewick, who ranks next to him, there are five pictures. As Goodall looks to Teniers, so Crewick, we think, looks to Hobbema. His best picture here, *Afternoon* (39), represents a watermill, with a flowing stream and a group of over-shadowing trees to the right, the soft aerial toning of the middle distance, the brooding quiet, the effect of retirement and coolness are most beautifully felt and rendered in this charming picture; the dashing water is not, perhaps, quite happy in the execution; it is a little too formal and frittered, but where it settles into a pool beneath, it is extremely well painted. His other pictures (particularly 70 and 141) have the same sentiment of shadowy rural repose, and the same delicacy and lightness in the foliage.

Cooke is also one of our most delightful landscape painters, and, if he work up to his own powers, will one day be our English Cuyt. His predilections are evidently for the same class of subjects—coast and river scenes, transparent waters reflecting transparent skies, and fishing boats, and groups of characteristic figures, painted with great feeling, truth, and harmony. Cooke has, in this exhibition, the greatest number of pictures by any one artist; six have found admittance, and all have exceeding merit; but the little view in Holland (1), and the larger picture of the view in Jersey (116), are, perhaps, the best. A *Rustic Scene*, by R. Boddington (78), strikes us by its unaffected sweetness and truth; and there are other landscapes of merit, which for the present we must leave without particular notice, in order to pay a just tribute to G. Lance, who, as a painter of fruit, flowers, and still life, stands quite unrivalled among living painters. His two pieces (8, 168,) must be pronounced excellent: truth of imitation, richness, delicacy, brilliancy, and felicitous arrangement, almost all that can be required in this style of art, he has here attained; when the tints are a little more mellowed and fused by time, nothing more can be desired. Before the Exhibition finally closes, we shall probably return to the consideration of some particular pictures, which we leave for the present unnoticed. We shall also have a few words to say of the Sculpture.

MUSIC AND THE DRAMA

QUARTET CONCERTS—HANOVER SQUARE ROOMS.

Monday, Wednesday, and Friday. Her Majesty's Servants will perform the New Play, entitled *GISIPPUS: Fulvius*, Mr. Anderson; *Giuseppe*, Mr. Macready; *Pharis*, Mr. Elton; *Chorus*, Mr. Hudson; *Soprano*, Miss Helen Faucit; with other Entertainments. Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday. Handel's Opera of *ACIS AND GALATEA*, illustrated by Mr. Stanfield, R.A.; with Jerrold's Comedy of *THE PRISONER OF WAR*; and E. Morton's Farce of *THE WINDMILL*.

THEATRE ROYAL, DRURY LANE.

On Monday, Wednesday, and Friday. Her Majesty's Servants will perform the New Play, entitled *GISIPPUS: Fulvius*, Mr. Anderson; *Giuseppe*, Mr. Macready; *Pharis*, Mr. Elton; *Chorus*, Mr. Hudson; *Soprano*, Miss Helen Faucit; with other Entertainments. Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday. Handel's Opera of *ACIS AND GALATEA*, illustrated by Mr. Stanfield, R.A.; with Jerrold's Comedy of *THE PRISONER OF WAR*; and E. Morton's Farce of *THE WINDMILL*.

CONTEMPORARY MUSICAL COMPOSERS.

IGNACE MOSCHELES.

This distinguished artist holds too special and significant a place among modern writers for the pianoforte, to be longer passed over. We have elsewhere had frequent opportunities of speaking of him as a directing musician, but since the publication of his Characteristic Studies (*Athen.* No. 538), he has been too sparing in giving us occasion for comment. Here, however, his *Romance et Tarentelle Brillante*, op. 101, his *Serenade*, op. 103, and *Sechs Lieder* (six German songs), recently published at Leipzig, furnish as agreeable a text for dissertation as could be desired.

The 'Serenade' is a movement of rare beauty. We do not, however, single it out for the sake of the sweetness of its melody—nor for the masterly skill with which its leading thought is conducted to a close, by transitions the most natural yet anything but hackneyed, by passages the most flowing yet anything but monotonous. It is deserving of especial attention on other grounds, as music of the new school written by one belonging to an elder one.

What this new school is, unhappily, we know too well. Reveries, fantasies, morsels of crude harmony, tremendous passages, indiscriminately introduced to exhibit peculiar powers of hand, are the sole things sought after, at the expense of continuity of thought. Nor are these characteristics maliciously exaggerated by us, since, whatever be their faults, we have a sympathy with all pioneers and discoverers in Art. But the influence of these innovators is too marked to be passed over without regret. The great mechanical powers, which it appears to be the aim of modern executive instrumentalists to display, are, comparatively speaking, obscured in music of combination: hence, the latter is laid on the shelf. The Concerto is all but extinct—the chamber trio comes 'like an angel visit'—the Sonata is defunct, and whatever be the amount of immediate amusement to our ears and our imaginations, in the fragmentary and fantastic music of the hour, on its ceasing, we too often find that the mind is seldom half an idea the wiser, too often look back wistfully to the grave and well considered works of Steibelt, Dussek, Clementi, Woelfl, and fly, with positive repugnance, to the more thoughtless and less mechanical creations of Beethoven and Weber, though, like the scenes and speeches of Shakespeare, we know every tone of them by heart.

In the elegant compositions under notice, may be seen what the works of the new school might be, were they planned with as much intellect and finished with as deliberate care, as the Concerto and Sonata of our fathers. The new form of accompanied melody, intimated by Weber, introduced by Mendelssohn, elaborated by Thalberg and Henselt, and pushed to its extremest uses by Liszt, is here employed;—but with a grace, a fullness, and a pertinence, a variety without oddity, and a significance without pedantry, which none of the aforementioned composers have reached. The theme, again, though as delicately melodious as any *serenade* or *nocturne* which ever floated from beneath Chopin's pen's point, has none of those crude and conceited turns, which Chopin can hardly resist introducing, even when simplicity is most demanded. The lover of *vocalism* on the piano—a feature which it is the taste of the times to encourage and to caricature—will have full cause to be contented: the aspirer after difficulties to be overcome, will find that the 'Serenade,' melodious and easy though it seem, is severe enough to task his best powers of extension, smoothness, and independence of finger; but, best of all, as a merit, is the maintenance of one master-thought, of one

predominant colour, here accomplished without the writer's degenerating into a dry or puerile sameness.

This composition is also eminent among the writings of its author, in a point to insist on which helps us to one of his characteristics. With some, Moscheles passes as a writer whose profound harmonic knowledge and subtle intelligence tempt him into changes, progressions, and combinations, by which the simplicity of his master idea, the native sweetness of his melody is shut up and hampered. He never affronts the ear, like Chopin, with an odd modulation, but sometimes refuses to satisfy it, for the sake of giving a choicer turn to the phrase, a less hackneyed finish to the passage. Hence, the very quality which makes him, beyond all his contemporaries, precious to the pianist, sometimes stands between him and the general listener—so few take the trouble to think, to compare, to analyze, when occupied in the enjoyment of Art! But this habit of intellectual fencing, common to all who have extensive technical resources at command, this sedulous attention to clothing and arrangement, by which the thoughts to be clad and arranged suffer, is by no means so largely present in our author's works as some drawing-room critics are pleased to assert. To seek no further than his well-known duet Sonata, in E flat, the first movement of that composition possesses all the breadth, decision, and simplicity of a symphony; so, too, many of his Studies are as apparently unstudied in their complication, as if indeed they had been thrown off spontaneously—while, in the gem before us, set off by all the nicety of construction we have commended as a lost art, the 'Serenade' floats on with an artless and gentle elegance, as undisturbed by any quaint turn, or too exquisite prolongation of suspense, as simple in its effect as if it were a southern melody, but how far more satisfactory on a frequent repetition!

We have left ourselves no room to speak of the *Romance et Tarentelle*, the last, as brilliant, busy, and firmly knit a rondo as we can recollect: nor can we here do more than mention yet another of Moscheles' last works, his pianoforte duet on themes from 'Oberon' and 'Euryanthe.' All three are boons of no common value to the pianist; and, using Christopher Sly's commendation of the play, with an important alteration however, we may truly say, "Excellent good! let there come many more of them!"

SACRED HARMONIC SOCIETY.—'Joshua.'—When, last week, we characterized Handel's 'Joshua' as a finer work than his 'Solomon,' we referred to its choruses. The songs are decidedly of third-rate quality. 'O, had I Jubal's lyre' is a mere piece of execution; and even the favourite bass aria, 'Shall I in Mamre's fertile plain,' has always appeared to us a heavy, inexpressive song, well calculated, perhaps, to exhibit the singer's tone, but, whether as regards words or music, offering little scope for his higher attributes. *Achshai*, the principal soprano, is a mere walking lady. The best part in the oratorio is, indisputably, that of *Oldziel*; and the duet 'Our limpid streams in freedom flow,' and the air 'Heroes when with glory burning,' offer as pleasing specimens of Handel's *cantabile*, as his works afford. A part of this general flatness may fairly be charged to the wretched text, to which the master was compelled to accommodate himself. In the choruses, however, we find him at the usual height of his glorious imagination,—taking advantage of the slightest indications of situation or sentiment, to construct those imperishable sequences of sound, whose originality is only to be surpassed by their variety and simplicity. It is in these movements, that we think Handel must for ever stand alone and unequalled; owing to the very limited scale of orchestral resource of his time (to which it would be mere pedantry to return,) he was compelled to give the vocal part of his work a prominence of outline and a solidity of texture, hardly possible in these days, when the "mazy cunning" of instrumental accompaniment so constantly interferes with and covers the sense mated with sound, to enunciate which is the main duty of every chorus. To illustrate our general praise from 'Joshua,' we need only point to those glorious specimens, 'To long posterity,' 'Glory to God! the strong cemented walls,'—the chorus of the defeated Israelites, 'How soon our towering hopes are crossed,'—that admirable piece of description, 'Behold! the listening sun,' of which it is difficult to tell whether the commence-

ment or the conclusion be the more picturesque,—and, best known, but not therefore least loved, the jubilant, 'See, the conquering hero comes.' The execution of these superb movements was, to say the best of it, mediocre. We have long hesitated to declare the whole truth, as regards these Exeter Hall meetings, from a natural sympathy with an establishment which has so many claims on our respect, and a hope that its conductor might, by degrees, qualify himself for the arduous duties he has to fulfil. But our hopes have been disappointed; and we must now declare, that there is no progress, and, consequently, no long life for the Sacred Harmonic Society, without a thorough reform. The choruses are stronger than they used to be, but is this owing to the advance made by the members, or the adventitious aid derived from hired professional assistants? But what matters a strong chorus, if a wrong tempo be given in the first instance, or if any tempo, once given, be swerved from, owing to the vacillation of the conductor's baton? The solo parts were fairly sustained by Mad. Caradori, and Mr. Phillips, Miss Dolby, Miss Ward, and Mr. Harrison.

DRURY LANE.—The new play of 'Gisippus' owes its success more to the fine scenery of Mr. Marshall than to the power of the dramatist, or the effect of the acting: the scene being laid first in Athens and afterwards in Rome, affords the scene-painter an opportunity of contrasting Grecian and Roman architecture; and though hyper-criticism might object to some of the details, the general impression is grand and characteristic. The Parthenon, in the first scene, looks rather small; but the view of Athens, seen above the portico of a garden, with the Acropolis towering in the distance, is magnificent; the interior of a Greek dwelling, evidently copied from the remains of Pompeii, is questionable in its correctness as a representation of a house in Athens, but its antique character and appearance have the effect of carrying the imagination back to the classic age; the scene of a Necropolis outside the walls of Rome, by moonlight, is worthy of Stanfield; the costumes and accessories are in appropriate taste, and the whole spectacle is superb in its materials, and pictorial in beauty. We have reversed the usual order of things, in speaking of the stage exhibition first, for this continually drew away our attention from the play, and also elicited most applause: indeed, the story of 'Gisippus,' as enacted,—which is very different from that related in the Decameron, on which it is founded—is a tissue of gratuitous miseries, self-inflicted, by a man who has violent misgivings of the constancy of his friend, for whom he makes the sacrifice, and who is continually upbraiding him, when fortune, or his own improvidence and procrastination are to blame. This is not only unlike a philosopher, as *Gisippus* is represented to be, but unworthy of the generous friendship which he professes. *Gisippus* having given up *Sophronia*, his betrothed, to his friend *Fulvius*, on discovering that they loved each other, falls into poverty and is sold to slavery; by some mischance *Fulvius* remains ignorant of his misfortunes; whereupon *Gisippus* accuses his friend of ingratitude; and further insists upon believing that when he presents himself in the dress of a slave, and gaunt with famine, before *Fulvius*, who does not recognize him, his friend must have known him. Such misadventures are a subject for comedy; we cannot deeply sympathize with the sufferings of a hero that exemplify nothing but dilatoriness on the one hand, and heedlessness on the other. If *Fulvius* had kept his appointment, *Gisippus* would have been saved from ruin; but this is only a lesson on the consequences of the want of punctuality; while, as *Gisippus* might have told *Fulvius* of his situation before, it might point a moral of the evils of delay. The play is, in other respects, defective; the motives and characters of the *dramatis persone* are vague, and the dialogue is undramatic, the plot is confused, and there are no striking stage situations—for awkward dilemmas and unpleasant predicaments are not necessarily dramatic. This is a posthumous work of Mr. Gerald Griffin, author of 'The Collegians,' and displays more of the fluency and ingenuity of the novelist, than the vigour of the dramatist: the few passages that were applauded, are of a descriptive kind. Of the acting there is little to be said. Macready does his best to make *Gisippus* impressive, and he is so in appearance;

but the demands upon our sympathies are resisted by the reason, and the pathos falls short. Anderson, as *Fulvius*, is too uniformly loud and vehement; yet, at the least, his emotions, when he learns the danger of *Gisippus*, and flies to rescue him, produce a strong impression. Miss H. Faucit, as *Sophronia*, is agitated throughout, but her agitation is not touching. Mr. Graham, who played *Coriolanus* at the Surrey, made his first appearance, in an unimportant part; a fine figure appears to be his best recommendation. Miss E. Phillips deserves a word of praise for the nice manner in which she played a page, and gave a description of *Gisippus* in his dungeon.

COVENT GARDEN.—A new comedy, by Mr. Douglas Jerrold, with the striking title, 'Bubbles of the Day,' was performed last night, but too late for notice in our columns this week. The 'Irish Heiress' disappeared after the second night.

HAYMARKET.—Mr. Bernard has shown the impossibility of such a being as a "woman-hater," by exhibiting a professor of this misanthropic hypocrisy converted by the first pair of lovely eyes that glance at him, and falling in love with a miniature, the lips of which he kisses away in his rapturous dotage. Mr. Webster is hardly equal to the demands of the character, which, slight as it is, might tax the skill of a Perlet to bring out its foibles; and Mrs. Charles Pettingall is too artificial for the simple part she has to play. 'Marriage' continues to be played nightly, but does not appear to be very attractive.

The **ADELPHI** has brought out a petite comedy of Scribe's, under the *ad captandum* title of 'Breach of Promise of Marriage,' the story of which is, an aristocratic brother preventing his sister's alliance with a young composer. The acting of Mr. and Mrs. Yates, as the brother and sister, is admirable; but the lover is ridiculous. Mr. Wright is a low comedian of quaint humour—plays a fussy lawyer capitally, and is very amusing.

MISCELLANEA

Paris Academy of Sciences.—Feb. 14.—A communication was read from M. Combes, on a supposed cause of the contortions of the metallic tube in the bore of the well of Grenelle. Extract of a memoir, by M. Besseli, on a phenomenon of atmospheric light, which appeared to be the reflection of a fire on the earth from the surfaces of clouds, which were probably frozen.—A note was read from M. Mallet, of St. Quentin, upon some further improvements in the purification of gas. He had succeeded in depriving gas, not only of its ammonia and its sulph-hydric acid, but also of its empyreumatic products and of its naphthalene. The gas, thus purified, was found to retain only a very slight empyreumatic smell, very different from the fetid odour which it commonly possessed.—M. Nothomb informed the Academy that he had found considerable advantage, in photographic operations, resulting from the use of photochlorure of mercury, instead of pure mercury, as originally used by M. Daguerre.—A note was read from M. Delattre, stating that he had succeeded in combining iodine and phosphorus with selenium.

Fountain of Fire.—I have just visited a jet of natural gas, which rises through a small river about 1½ mile from Pont-y-pridd (Newbridge), Glamorganshire. The brook has its source in the valley between the Llantrisant and Dinas Mountains, flows into the Ronda, and joins the Taff at Newbridge. In the centre of this river, or brook, is a continued rising, or strong bubble, of about eight or ten inches above the stream, as though the water was blown up by a current of air, or natural gas (and exceedingly cold to the hand). This, when ignited, produces a powerful flame, from four to five feet in height, with intense heat; and the smell is the same as burning sulphur. There are two jets in the field adjoining, and three on the other side the brook; but they are not so strong as the one passing through the water. The effect by night is grand and beautiful; having the appearance of one mass of large, brilliant, blue flames. This singular phenomenon was accidentally discovered by one of the men at the adjoining mill, about two months since. Not having yet seen any account of it in print, I have sent you some particulars, collected on the spot. I am, &c., J. P. High Street, Bristol.

Pens, Pen-holders, Ink, and Ink-stands.—We are repeatedly called on by patentees, inventors, and discoverers, to report on their various novelties, and by none more frequently than those who concern themselves with pens and ink. Now, as may be supposed, we should rejoice at any improvement in these things, and very gratefully announce it to the public—but novelty by no means implies improve-

ment. Thus we have had three professed patent ink-stands in use for some months, all ingenious, but not one, in our opinion, equal to the common fountain ink-stand—and of some dozen variety of pens, not one, for continuous work, equal to Gillott's eagle pen—the only objection to which is the price. Still many have their special use—thus when an ink-stand, as in a drawing-room, is only occasionally required, Perry's double patent filter, or Ratcliff's patent, are excellent. But are not the numberless attempts at improvement conclusive evidence that there are great and inherent objections to the use of pens, ink, and ink-stands?—and might it not be well if some of our able chemists would consider whether they could not discover some indelible marking pencil that would supersede pens, ink, and ink-stands altogether?

Magnificent Vase.—A letter from Rome, in the *Augsburgh Gazette*, states that the Emperor of Russia has just sent to the Pope a magnificent vase of malachite (green oxide of copper), sculptured at St. Petersburg, and larger than the vase already placed in the Vatican. This splendid present, which is intended as an acknowledgment of the attention paid by his Holiness to the Hereditary Grand Duke while at Rome, is on a base of jasper, and stands altogether 7½ Roman palms, or more than 5½ English feet high. The vase has been placed in the Vatican.

The Well at Grenelle.—The freaks and eccentricities of the famous Well of Grenelle—which has attracted so much of the attention of the scientific, as well as of the merely curious public, for so many months—seem destined to defeat all the combinations of science. The following remarks of Dr. Donne, on this hitherto abortive enterprise, and the singular and unappreciated accidents which have disappointed the hope of so many years, at the moment when it seemed realized, afford a graphic picture of the natural puzzle, which the wise men of Paris are engaged in the vain attempt to solve.—"The question grows daily more and more complicated and entangled; and the spirit of the engineers and geologists is in travail to discover the secret of the obstacles by which their efforts are met. One or two theories, per week, at the least, reach the Institute, and there are, at the present moment, not less than ten or a dozen ways of conceiving and accounting for the facts. We are thus abundantly provided with explanations, more or less satisfactory, to amuse us till the time when the final result itself shall enable us to assign their respective value to all. What, in the mean time, is more clear, is that we have got here upon unknown ground—within an order of unexplored phenomena—and that it is difficult to foresee how we shall come out of them. It is the first time that man has penetrated to that sheet of subterranean water, which lies beneath the thick stratum of chalk that forms the bottom of the Paris basin;—and, in spite of all the foresight and calculations of science, we know not whence that water comes—can learn nothing of the source which feeds that vast reservoir. That water, in its ascent, presents phenomena, unknown in their nature, but proportioned to the prodigious ascensional force which makes it gush, from a depth of fifteen hundred feet, above the upper surface of the earth. The tubes that are sought to be introduced to the bottom of the well, in search of clear water, beneath the black sands that thicken and disturb it, and which it flings incessantly, in prodigious quantities to the surface, are flattened, twisted, and broken. Whence come these efforts of pressure and distortion? By what means are such effects to be remedied, and will a sufficient resistance be obtained from stronger and more solid tubes? These are the inquiries to be pursued—and the opening to science of this novel field of investigation, is, up to the present time, the only positive result obtained from the execution of the Well of Grenelle. But, in order to explore this field with effect—to profit by this opportunity of acquiring new knowledge relating to the constitution of the terrestrial crust, at certain depths, and the currents of waters which move therein, we must begin by an attentive observation, and persevering pursuit, of facts, before venturing upon interpretations. For this reason, we attach little value to the host of hypotheses, conceived in the closet. It is easy enough to hazard a multitude of conjectures, each more ingenious than the last, but none of them throwing any real light whatever on the question. Yet that question is one

well worth a scientific man's devotion, and offers a vast and important subject of research to him who will enter upon it with the needful lights, and in the right spirit. It is nothing less (amongst other suppositions more or less probable, more or less absurd, which might be raised) than to ascertain how far there really is danger, that a vast and deep sea may follow the working of the waters among these sands—or that some fine morning, we may see the waters of the Seine filtering away through some fissure, and disappearing in this immense gulf?—And, if it should finally appear that prudence enjoins the stopping of this rush of water—the closing of the Well of Grenelle—what will be the best means of arresting this column of water, capable as it is of surmounting powerful obstacles, and piercing its way to the surface, through the opposing strata, in the neighbourhood of the closed issue?—No such extremities, however, do we, for our own parts, anticipate; and we have faith in the resources of art, and the skill of the engineers who are occupied with this great work."

Earthquake in Cornwall.—On the 17th, about 8 A.M., a vibration of the earth, accompanied by a rumbling noise, was felt at Falmouth, Penryn, Helston, and other places in that neighbourhood.

Irish Coin of Edward IV.—Dr. Smith some short time since read to the Irish Academy, an account of an unpublished Irish coin of Edward IV. Some workmen, he observed, were employed in cleaning one of the city drains, and a few coins were found. Among them was one of no intrinsic value, and apparently of no interest whatever. It is made of brass, and was originally plated with silver, traces of which still remain. On one side it has a crown within a circle of pellets, outside which, in place of a legend, are crosses and roses alternately; on the other side it has the common type—a cross, with three pellets in each quarter; the legend is defaced. It weighs nearly five grains. This little coin bears no evidence in itself which would enable us to say to what king's reign it should be appropriated, or even to what country. But on referring to an Act passed in the second year of Edward IV., at a parliament held in Dublin, we find it enacted, 'that a coyn of copper mixed with silver, be made within the Castle of Dublin, having on one side the print of a cross, and on the other part a crown, of which four shall be taken for a penny; and that the said coyn shall have graven within the circumference of the said cross, the name of the place where it was made; and on the other part *suns and roses in the circumference of the said crowne*.' It is to be regretted, that this little coin, the only one of the kind which has been found, is not in better preservation; but such as it is, it corresponds in every particular with the description in the Act; and, therefore, we do not hesitate to assert that it is one of the farthings of mixed metal ordered to be made in 1462. It may be objected, that this coin has crosses instead of suns round the crown, and it would be difficult indeed to give a more accurate symbol of the sun, in so many places, within so limited a space; but we should recollect, that similar crosses occur on some of the silver groats of Edward IV., coined in Dublin in the beginning of his reign. On these groats, immediately over the crown, on the obverse, are placed three small crosses, which have usually been considered as privy marks. Now taking for granted, that these crosses on the groats were intended to represent suns, as they evidently were on the farthing, we suspect we can account for them, not only as privy marks, indicating that the coins on which they are found belong to Edward IV., but also assign a probable reason why *three* only should appear. The sun was first introduced by Edward IV. upon the coins, 'in commemoration of an extraordinary appearance in the heavens, immediately before the battle of Mortimer's Cross, in Hertfordshire, (in 1461,) where *three suns* were seen which shone for a time, and then were suddenly conjoined in one.' It matters little whether the extraordinary phenomenon just alluded to be explained or not; it is sufficient for our purpose to know, that it gave rise to the introduction of the sun as a privy mark on the coins of Edward; and we may be permitted to hazard the conjecture, that the three crosses on his Irish groats, coined shortly after the battle of Mortimer's Cross, were intended to represent the *three suns*.

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